

UNIVERSITY OF GLASGOW



An Analytic Study of Errors
Made by
Iraqi Students
in Using
English Prepositions of Place Relation

..

Zuheir A. Abdul Rahman

Thesis Submitted in Fulfilment
of
Requirements for the Degree
of
Doctor of Philosophy

University of Glasgow
Faculty of Arts
Department of English Language

September 1990
(Vol. I)

© Zuheir A. Abdul Rahman, 1990

Acknowledgements

Any theoretical and empirical piece of work, including the present one, demands many sources of guidance and assistance. First and most of all, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my supervisor, Miss C. J. Kay, under whose supervision the present work has been carried out. I heartily thank her for her invaluable suggestions, comments, observations and patience throughout the writing of this thesis. Her supervision and assistance will remain memorable.

I would also like to express my thanks to Professor Samuels, the head of the department of English language, for his comments and constructive remarks on the first five chapters of the thesis.

I extend my gratitude to Professor Mattock, Mr. Saalih and Mr Hussein, whose remarks and observations helped enormously in writing the part dealing with the Arabic language.

Thanks are due to all staff of the Department of English at the College of Arts, College of Education and Teachers' Institute in Baghdad for their full co-operation in carrying out the three parts of the test.

I am very much indebted to the staff members and the secretary of the Department of English Language at Glasgow University for their assistance and encouragement.

I also wish to acknowledge my debt to the officials at the Iraqi Ministry for Education for granting me a scholarship. My thanks also go to the officials at the Iraqi Cultural Department in London for facilitating my two visits to Iraq to carry out my field studies.

Finally, I feel it incumbent on me to express my deep debt of gratitude to my family for their support, encouragement and patience.

Table of Contents

	<u>Page</u>
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	iii
LIST OF TABLES	xx
LIST OF FIGURES	xxii
LIST OF APPENDICES	xxiii
KEY TO ARABIC TRANSCRIPTIONS	xxiv
SUMMARY	xxvi
 CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	 1-8
1.1. The Problem	1
1.2. The Purpose	3
1.3. Procedures and Methodology	4
1.4. The Hypotheses	6
1.5. Why the Choice of this Topic?	7
1.6. Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Further Research	7
 CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	 9-35
2.1. Introduction	9
2.2. Contrastive Analysis	9
2.3. Generative Grammar and Criticism of Contrastive Analysis	13
2.4. The Incorporation of Generative Grammar into Contrastive Analysis	16

2.5. Sources of Errors other than Interference	18
2.6. Error Analysis and Interlanguage	20
2.7. Error Analysis View of Errors	25
2.8. Criticism of Error Analysis and Interlanguage	29
2.9. Contrastive-Error Analysis	31

CHAPTER THREE: ENGLISH PREPOSITIONS 36-80

3.1. Introduction	36
3.2. The Difficulty of English Prepositions	37
3.3. Definition of English Prepositions	42
3.4. Schools of Grammar and their Views of Prepositions	43
3.5. Classification of English Prepositions	52
3.5.1. Formal Classification	52
3.5.2. Function of Prepositions	53
3.5.3. Prepositions Viewed Semantically	56
3.5.4. Position of Prepositions	58
3.6. Correlation of Roles with Prepositions	63
3.7. Single-word Verbs and Multi-word Verbs	66
3.8. Overlapping Between Prepositions and other Grammatical Categories	69
3.8.1. Prepositions and Adverbs	69
3.8.2. Prepositions and Verbs	73
3.8.3. Prepositions and Adjectives	75
3.8.4. Prepositions and Participles	77
3.9. Omission of Prepositions	77

CHAPTER FOUR: PREPOSITIONS OF PLACE RELATION	81-146
4.1. Introduction	81
4.2. Senses of Prepositions	82
4.2.1. List of Prepositions	83
4.2.1.1. Aboard	83
4.2.1.2. About	84
4.2.1.3. Above	85
4.2.1.4. Across	86
4.2.1.5. After	87
4.2.1.6. Against	88
4.2.1.7. Ahead of	88
4.2.1.8. Along	89
4.2.1.9. Alongside	89
4.2.1.10. Amid(st)	90
4.2.1.11. Among(st)	90
4.2.1.12. (A)round	91
4.2.1.13. Astride	93
4.2.1.14. At	93
4.2.1.15. Away from	94
4.2.1.16. Before	95
4.2.1.17. Behind	96
4.2.1.18. Below	97
4.2.1.19. Beneath	97
4.2.1.20. Beside	98
4.2.1.21. Between	99
4.2.1.22. Beyond	100
4.2.1.23. By	100
4.2.1.24. Down	102
4.2.1.25. Facing	103

4.2.1.26. For	103
4.2.1.27. From	105
4.2.1.28. In	106
4.2.1.29. In front of	109
4.2.1.30. Inside	109
4.2.1.31. Into	110
4.2.1.32. Near(to)	111
4.2.1.33. Next (to)	112
4.2.1.34. Of	112
4.2.1.35. Off	114
4.2.1.36. On	114
4.2.1.37. Onto	116
4.2.1.38. Opposite(to)	117
4.2.1.39. Out of	117
4.2.1.40. Outside(of)	119
4.2.1.41. Over	120
4.2.1.42. Past	121
4.2.1.43. Through	122
4.2.1.44. Throughout	124
4.2.1.45. To	124
4.2.1.46. Toward(s)	126
4.2.1.47. Under	127
4.2.1.48. Underneath	128
4.2.1.49. Up	129
4.2.1.50. Upon	129
4.2.1.51. Via	130
4.2.1.52. Within	130

4.3. Overlapping and Contrasts among English Prepositions	131
4.3.1. Aboard; On	131
4.3.2. About; (A)round	132
4.3.3. Above; Over	132
4.3.4. Across; Over	133
4.3.5. Across; Through	134
4.3.6. Among(st); Between	135
4.3.7. At; In; On	136
4.3.8. Away from; Off; Out of	138
4.3.9. Before; In front of	139
4.3.10. Behind; After	139
4.3.11. Below; Beneath; Under(neath)	139
4.3.12. Beside; Next(to)	140
4.3.13. Beyond; Past	141
4.3.14. By; Near	141
4.3.15. Facing; In front of; Opposite	141
4.3.16. Down; Up	142
4.3.17. For; From; To	142
4.3.18. In; Inside	143
4.3.19. In; Into	143
4.3.20. In; Within	145
4.3.21. On; Onto	145
4.3.22. To; Towards	146

CHAPTER FIVE: ARABIC PREPOSITIONS	147-182
5.1. Introduction	147
5.2. General Characteristics Relevant	147

to Arabic Prepositions

5.3. Definition of Arabic Prepositions	149
5.4. Number of Arabic Prepositions	152
5.5. Prepositions and Adverbs	153
5.6. Origin of Prepositions	157
5.7. Classification of Arabic Prepositions	159
5.7.1. Morphological Classification	159
5.7.2. Semantic and Syntactic	160
Classifications	
5.8. The Prepositional Phrase	163
5.9. Preposition Complement	169
5.10. Overlapping of Arabic Prepositions	173
5.11. Omission of Prepositions	176
5.12. Verb-Preposition Structure	179

CHAPTER SIX: PREPOSITIONS .OF PLACE RELATION 183-227

6.1. Introduction	183
6.2. Category One	186
6.2.1. Group A "Locative" Prepositions	186
6.2.1.1. /baa?/	186
6.2.1.2. /fii/	188
6.2.1.3. /9alaa/	190
6.2.2. Group B "Direction to"	193
Prepositions	
6.2.2.1. /?ilaa/	193
6.2.2.2. /laam/	194
6.2.2.3. /hattaa/	196

6.2.3. Group C "Direction from"	197
Prepositions	
6.2.3.1. /min/	197
6.2.3.2. /9an/	199
6.3. Category Two	201
6.3.1. Group A /?amaama/; /quddaama/;	202
/qubaala/; /qubaalata/;	
/?izaa?a/; /tijaaha/; /hitaa?a/	
6.3.2. Group B /?a9laa/; /?asfala/	203
6.3.3. Group C /bayna/; /wasta/	204
6.3.3.1. /bayna/	204
6.3.3.2. /wasta/	206
6.3.4. Group D /waraa?a/; /xalfa/	206
6.3.4.1. /waraa?a/	206
6.3.4.2. /xalfa/	207
6.3.5. Group E /fawqa/; /tahta/;	207
/duuna/; /qurba/;	
/9inda/	
6.3.5.1. /fawqa/	207
6.3.5.2. /tahta/	209
6.3.5.3. /duuna/	210
6.3.5.4. /qurba/	212
6.3.5.5. /9inda/	212
6.3.6. Group F /bijaanibi/; /janba/;	214
/bimuhaataati/;	
/tuula/tiwaala/	
6.3.6.1. /bijaanibi/janba/	214
6.3.6.2. /bimuhaataati/	214

6.3.6.3.	/tuula/tiwaala/	214
6.3.7.	Group G /xaarija/; /daaxila/	216
6.3.7.1.	/xaarija/	216
6.3.7.2.	/daaxila/	216
6.3.8.	Group H /qabla/; /ba9da/	217
6.3.9.	Group I /yamiina/; /yasaara/; /jimaala//januuba/; /jarqa/; /garba/	218
6.3.10.	/hawla/	219
6.3.11.	/nahwa/tijaaha/	220
6.3.12.	/9abra/	221
6.3.13.	/xilaala/	222
6.4.	Overlapping among Arabic Prepositions	222
6.4.1.	/baa?/; /fii/	222
6.4.2.	/min/; /9an/	224
6.4.3.	/bayna/; /wasta/	225
6.4.4.	/tahta/; /duuna/	226
6.4.5.	/nahwa/; /?ilaa/	226

CHAPTER SEVEN: CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS 228-306

7.1.	Introduction	228
7.2.	List of Comparisons	229
7.2.1.	Aboard /9alaa jahri/	229
7.2.2.	About /hawla/hawaali/	230
7.2.3.	Above /fawqa/	234
7.2.4.	Across /9abra/	235
7.2.5.	After /ba9da/xalfa/waraa?a/	238
7.2.6.	Against /9aks/did/	239

7.2.7. Ahead of	/ʔamaama/	241
7.2.8. Along	/tuula/tiwaala/ /9alaa tuuli/	242
7.2.9. Alongside	/bimuhaataati/	243
7.2.10. Amid(st)	/wasta/	244
7.2.11. Among(st)	/bayna/	245
7.2.12. (A)round	/hawla/	245
7.2.13. Astride	/9alaa/	249
7.2.14. At	/9inda/	250
7.2.15. Away from	/ba9iidan 9an/	252
7.2.16. Before	/qabla/	252
7.2.17. Behind	/waraaʔa/xalfa/	253
7.2.18. Below	/tahta/	254
7.2.19. Beneath	/tahta/	255
7.2.20. Beside	/bijaanibi/janba/	257
7.2.21. Between	/bayna/	257
7.2.22. Beyond	(no equivalent)	259
7.2.23. By	(no equivalent)	260
7.2.24. Down	/ʔasfala/ʔilaa ʔasfali/	261
7.2.25. Facing	/muqaabila/qubaalata/	263
7.2.26. For	/laam/ʔilaa/	264
7.2.27. From	/min/	265
7.2.28. In front of	/ʔamaama/	267
7.2.29. In	/fii/	270
7.2.30. Inside	/daaxila/fii daaxili/	271
7.2.31. Into	(no equivalent)	272
7.2.32. Near(to)	/qurba/	274
7.2.33. Next(to)	(no equivalent)	274

7.2.34. Of	/9an/	275
7.2.35. Off	(no equivalent)	276
7.2.36. On	/9alaa/	278
7.2.37. Onto	(no equivalent)	280
7.2.38. Opposite (to)	/muqaabila/ qubaalata/	281
7.2.39. Out of	(no equivalent)	282
7.2.40. Outside (of)	/xaarija/	285
7.2.41. Over	/fawqa/	285
7.2.42. Past	(no equivalent)	290
7.2.43. Through	/xilaala/	291
7.2.44. Throughout	(no equivalent)	294
7.2.45. To	/ʔilaa/laam/	296
7.2.46. Towards	/nahwa/ biʔittijaahi/	298
7.2.47. Under	/tahta/	299
7.2.48. Underneath	/tahta/	300
7.2.49. Up	/ʔa9laa/ ʔilaa ʔa9laa/	301
7.2.50. Upon		303
7.2.51. Via	(no equivalent)	303
7.2.52. Within	(no equivalent)	304

CHAPTER EIGHT: ERROR ANALYSIS	307-380
8.1. Introduction	307
8.2. The Test	308
8.2.1. The Purpose	308
8.2.2. Test Administration	310

8.2.3. Data Sheet	311
8.3. Error Analysis and Interpretation	312
8.4. Discussion of Errors	329
8.4.1. Interlingual Errors	330
8.4.1.1. Of	331
8.4.1.2. At	332
8.4.1.3. For	336
8.4.1.4. Aboard	336
8.4.1.5. Next (to)	337
8.4.1.6. Between/Among	338
8.4.1.7. Through	339
8.4.1.8. Out of	340
8.4.1.9. About/Around	341
8.4.1.10. Across	342
8.4.1.11. On	343
8.4.1.12. Onto	344
8.4.1.13. Over	345
8.4.1.14. Into	346
8.4.1.15. Ahead of	347
8.4.1.16. Throughout	347
8.4.1.17. Off	348
8.4.1.18. Past	349
8.4.1.19. (x)	349
8.4.1.20. Before	350
8.4.1.21. By	351
8.4.1.22. Along	351
8.4.1.23. Over	352
8.4.1.24. Against	352

8.4.1.25. (A)round	352
8.4.1.26. Via	353
8.4.1.27. Beyond	353
8.4.2. Intralingual Errors	354
8.4.2.1. Partial Learning	354
8.4.2.1.1. To	355
8.4.2.1.2. For	356
8.4.2.1.3. From	356
8.4.2.1.4. Toward(s)	356
8.4.2.1.5. Behind	357
8.4.2.1.6. In	357
8.4.2.1.7. Aboard	358
8.4.2.1.8. (A)round/At	358
8.4.2.1.9. Next (to)	358
8.4.2.1.10. On	359
8.4.2.1.11. Facing	359
8.4.2.1.12. Of	360
8.4.2.1.13. Alongside	360
8.4.2.1.14. Up	360
8.4.2.1.15. Into	361
8.4.2.1.16. Near	361
8.4.2.1.17. Along	362
8.4.2.1.18. Before	362
8.4.2.1.19. Over	362
8.4.2.1.20. Along	363
8.4.2.1.21. (x)	363
8.4.2.1.22. On	363
8.4.2.1.24. Off	364
8.4.2.1.2 ⁴ . Into	364

8.4.2.1.26. Down	364
8.4.2.2. Overlapping	365
8.4.2.2.1. Toward(s)	365
8.4.2.2.2. Next (to)	366
8.4.2.2.3. Through/	366
Across	
8.4.2.2.4. Onto	367
8.4.2.2.5. Above; Over	367
8.4.2.2.6. Below	368
8.4.2.2.7. Into	368
8.4.2.2.8. Between;	369
Among	
8.4.2.2.9. Out of	369
8.4.2.2.10. In; At	370
8.4.2.2.11. Over;	370
Across	
8.4.2.2.12. Over/Below	371
8.4.2.3. Graphic Similarity	371

CHAPTER NINE: COMPARISON OF CA PREDICTIONS 374-396

WITH TEST RESULTS

9.1. Introduction	374
9.2. List of Comparison	374
9.2.1. Aboard	374
9.2.2. About	375
9.2.3. Above	375
9.2.4. Across	376
9.2.5. Against	377

9.2.6. Ahead of	377
9.2.7. Along	377
9.2.8. Alongside	378
9.2.9. Among	378
9.2.10. (A)round	379
9.2.11. At	379
9.2.12. Before	381
9.2.13. Behind	381
9.2.14. Below	381
9.2.15. Between	382
9.2.16. Beyond	382
9.2.17. By	383
9.2.18. Down	383
9.2.19. Facing	384
9.2.20. For	384
9.2.21. From	384
9.2.22. In	385
9.2.23. Into	385
9.2.24. Near (to)	386
9.2.25. Next (to)	386
9.2.26. Of	387
9.2.27. Off	387
9.2.28. On	388
9.2.29. Onto	389
9.2.30. Out of	389
9.2.31. Over	390
9.2.32. Past	391
9.2.33. Through	392

9.2.34. Throughout	393
9.2.35. To	393
9.2.36. Toward	393
9.2.37. Up	394
9.2.38. Via	394
9.2.39. (x)	395

CHAPTER TEN: PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS 397-447

10.1. Introduction	397
10.2. Contrastive Linguistics and Foreign/ Second Language Teaching	399
10.3. Error Analysis and Language Teaching	404
10.4. The Utility of Contrastive/Error Analyses in Pedagogy	409
10.5. Previous Approaches to Teaching English Prepositions	410
10.5.1. Kreidler's 'Association' Approach	410
10.5.2. Hornby's 'Unit' Method	410
10.5.3. Close's 'Relationship' Approach	411
10.5.4. Pittman's 'Demonstrable' Uses	411
10.5.5. Langendoen's 'Role- Subdivisions'	413
10.5.6. Buckingham's 'Remedial' Approach	414
10.5.7. Zughoul's Approach	417
10.5.8. The Writer's Suggestions	418
10.5.8.1. Aboard; On	420

10.5.8.2. About; (A)round	420
10.5.8.3. Above; Below	421
10.5.8.4. Above; Over	421
10.5.8.5. Across; Over	422
10.5.8.6. Across; Along	422
10.5.8.7. Across; Through	423
10.5.8.8. After; Before	423
10.5.8.9. After; Behind	423
10.5.8.10. Against; On	424
10.5.8.11. Ahead of; Before;	424
In front of; Facing;	
Opposite	
10.5.8.12. Along; Alongside	425
10.5.8.13. Among; Between	426
10.5.8.14. (A)round; Through	426
10.5.8.15. At; In	426
10.5.8.16. Behind; In front of	427
10.5.8.17. Below; Beneath;	427
Under; Underneath	
10.5.8.18. Beside; Next (to)	427
10.5.8.19. Beyond; Past	428
10.5.8.20. By; Near	428
10.5.8.21. Down; Up	429
10.5.8.22. For; To	429
10.5.8.23. From; Off	430
10.5.8.24. From; To	430
10.5.8.25. From; Out of	431
10.5.8.26. In; Inside	431

10.5.8.27. In; On	432
10.5.8.28. Inside; Outside	432
10.5.8.29. In; Into	432
10.5.8.30. Into; Out of	433
10.5.8.31. Next(to); Opposite	433
10.5.8.32. Of; Off	433
10.5.8.33. Off; Onto	433
10.5.8.34. On; Onto	434
10.5.8.35. Over; Under	434
10.5.8.36. To; Towards	434
10.5.8.37. Through; Throughout	435
10.6. Prepositions of Place Relation Used	437
in the <u>English Course For Iraq</u>	
10.7. Conclusions and Recommendations	445

List of Tables

<u>Table No.</u>		<u>Page</u>
1	Formation of Compound Prepositions in Arabic	185
2	Total Number of Examinees, their Age and Sex.	305
3	Summary of the Students' Correct and Incorrect Answers to the Test as a Whole	306
4	The Students' Performance in Part 1 of the Test	307
5	The Students' Performance in Part 2 of the Test	307
6	The Students' Performance in Part 3 of the Test	307
7	College of Arts	308
8	Class 1	310
9	Class 2	310
10	Class 3	310
11	Class 4	311
12	College of Education	311
13	Class 1	312
14	Class 2	313
15	Class 3	313
16	Class 4	313
17	Teachers' Institute	314
18	Class 1	315
19	Class 2	315
20	The Distribution of Hours per Week for English Subjects Taught at the Department of English at the College of Arts	316
21	The Distribution of Hours per Week for English Subjects Taught at the Department of English at	317

	the College of Education	
22	The Distribution of Hours per Week for English Subjects Taught at the Department of English at the Teachers' Institute	318
23	The Students' Correct and Incorrect Answers for Every Preposition Used in the Test	320
24	The Hierarchy of Problematic English Prepositions of Place RElation for Iraqi Learners of English	322

List of Figures

<u>Figure No.</u>		<u>Page</u>
1	The Students' Performance in the Whole Test	306
2	The Students' Performance at the College of Arts	309
3	The Students' Performance at the College of Education	311
4	The Students' Performance at the Teachers' Institute	314
5	Causes of Errors	365

List of Appendices

(Vol.2)

<u>Appendix No.</u>		<u>Page</u>
A	Comparison of Other Senses	1-38
B	The Three Parts of the Test	39-49
C	Tables of Errors	50-153
D	Samples of Exercises	154-167
E	Units Chosen from the <u>English Course For Iraq</u>	

Key to Arabic Transcriptions

The Arabic phonetic symbols, arranged alphabetically, are introduced below together with the Arabic orthographic equivalents and phonetic values:

Arabic Consonants

ʔ	ء	glottal stop
b	ب	voiced bilabial stop
t	ت	voiceless emphatic dental stop
ð	ث	voiceless flat interdental fricative
ʃ	ج	voiced palato-alveolar affricative
h	ح	voiceless pharyngeal fricative
x	خ	voiceless velar fricative
d	د	voiced dental stop
z	ذ	voiced flat interdental fricative
r	ر	voiced alveolar trill
z	ز	voiced grooved alveolar fricative
s	س	voiceless grooved alveolar fricative
ʃ	ش	voiceless palatal fricative
ʁ	ص	voiceless grooved emphatic alveolar fricative
ɗ	ض	voiced emphatic dental stop
ɬ	ط	voiceless emphatic dental stop
ɗ	ظ	voiced flat emphatic interdental fricative
ʕ	ع	voiced pharyngeal approximant
g	غ	voiced uvular fricative
f	ف	voiceless labiodental fricative
q	ق	voiceless uvular stop
k	ك	voiceless velar stop
l	ل	voiced dental lateral
m	م	voiced bilabial nasal
n	ن	voiced dental nasal
h	هـ	voiceless laryngeal fricative
w	و	voiced bilabial labio-alveolar glide
y	ي	voiced palatal glide

Arabic Vowels

i	short close front unrounded vowel
ii	long close front unrounded vowel
a	short open central unrounded vowel
aa	long open central unrounded vowel
u	short close back rounded vowel
uu	long close back rounded vowel

Arabic Diphthongs

aw	it starts as {a} and ends as {w}
ay	it starts as {a} and ends as {y}

(See Fiteih, 1983)

Summary

There seems to be a fundamental agreement among all those dealing with English pedagogy in the Arab World that understanding the correct usages of English prepositions is one of the most difficult areas for Arab students learning English as a foreign language.

Like other studies in Contrastive-Error Analysis, the present study has two main objectives: theoretical and pedagogic. More specifically, this study aims at predicting the type and cause of errors made by Iraqi learners in the use of English prepositions of place relation. It also suggests guidelines for teachers and curriculum specialists to use in helping their students overcome such difficulties.

The thesis comprises two volumes: the first, consisting of ten chapters, includes the theoretical and practical work; the second contains the appendices.

Chapter One is an introduction which presents the problem being investigated, the purpose of the study, the hypothesis, the potential value of the study, the procedure followed and finally the limitations of the study and suggestions for further research.

Chapter Two is a brief survey of Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis and Contrastive-Error Analysis and their impact on language teaching and learning.

Chapters Three and Five are devoted to presenting a brief review of what various schools of grammar say about prepositions in English and Arabic. They also introduce the function and use of prepositions, their classification and their overlapping with other linguistic categories such as adverbs, adjectives, verbs, conjunctions and participles. Finally, they cover optional and obligatory omission of prepositions.

Chapters Four and Six deal with all senses denoted by English and Arabic prepositions of place relation. Senses are divided into three categories, namely (a) spatial senses, (b) other senses and (c) idiomatic usages.

Chapter Seven undertakes Contrastive Analysis of spatial senses denoted by English and Arabic prepositions of place relation in an attempt to find points of similarity and difference. In the light of this analysis, all the difficulties Iraqi/Arab learners of English may confront when learning this aspect of the language are listed and accounted for in order to make the learners aware of them.

Chapter Eight is divided into two main sections. The first one describes the test which was administered to more than one thousand students at the departments of English in the College of Arts, the College of Education and the Teachers' Institute in Baghdad. The second section deals with Error Analysis. The main aim of this section is to specify the errors made by the examinees in the use of English prepositions of place relation as well as to explain the reasons behind these errors.

Chapter Nine is a comparison of Contrastive Analysis with Error Analysis results to see whether or not they correspond with each other. The conclusion reached is that neither Contrastive Analysis nor Error Analysis is alone sufficient to predict all errors. Thus, a combination of both is recommended.

The final chapter, "Pedagogical Implications and Conclusions", surveys previous approaches to teaching English prepositions and presents the writer's suggestions for improved methods. It also shows how Contrastive and Error Analyses can be of great benefit to textbook writers, teachers and learners.

The thesis ends with five appendices: Contrastive Analysis (CA) of senses other than the spatial ones mentioned in Chapter Seven, the three parts of the test, tables of errors, a selection of suggested exercises which may help learners acquire the correct usages of English prepositions; and eight units selected from the eight books of the English Course For Iraq.

Chapter One

Introduction

1.1. The Problem

Prepositions in English, though limited in number, constitute an indispensable part of the language since they form a basic component of the production and general understanding of the language. These words are a notoriously difficult and tricky area of English usage. This is to be the consensus of Grammarians and Contrastive and Error analysts who have dealt with prepositions as well as of teachers and students who strive to teach and learn them respectively. In the Arab world, teachers of English are well aware that prepositional usage is one of the most difficult areas faced by students learning English as a foreign language.

On the basis of this observation, the present writer has made an attempt to predict the difficulties which Iraqi students of English face and which will result in errors, arising either from mother tongue interference (interlingual), which constitute 57.35% of the errors, or from confusion within the target language, i.e. English (intralingual), which constitute 42.65% .

Errors of the first kind are of three types: replacement, omission, and redundancy. Consider the following:

A) Replacement (71.7%)

He threw a stone at the window.

To convey this sense, i.e. "throwing towards with the intention of hitting", in Arabic, students may use the incorrect preposition on,

the literal translation of the Arabic preposition /9alaa/, which is used in Arabic to indicate this meaning, instead of the correct preposition at.

B) Omission (13.8%)

He lived in this house for a long time.

The translation of this sentence into Arabic will yield either

/sakana fii haafaa ?albayti muddatan tawiilatan/

(lived he in this house time long)

or

/sakana haafaa ?albayta muddatan tawiilatan/

(lived he this house time long)

If the students think of the first option, there will be no problem because the two prepositions in and /fii/ are equivalent in the two languages. But if they think of the second option, they may omit the preposition in since the Arabic verb /sakana/(lived) can be used without a following preposition.

C) Redundancy (4.5%)

He went home.

The students may add the preposition to before the word "home" since, in Arabic, the verb /tahaba/(went) requires the use of the preposition /?ilaa/(to) regardless of the word following it.

With respect to the other type of difficulty, i.e. intralingual, there are also three kinds of problems. They are:

A) Overlapping (36.78%)

She dived into the water.

The students may use the preposition in instead of into. There are two reasons behind this error. First, the preposition into has no direct equivalent in Arabic. All senses denoted by the preposition into in English can be conveyed in Arabic by the preposition /fii/(in). The second reason is overlapping between the two prepositions, in and into, in English. In the following sentence, the use of either in or into is acceptable, with only a slight difference of meaning:

She put her hands in/into her pockets.

Arab students may thus regard the two prepositions as interchangeable.

B) Partial learning (58.63%)

We were within two miles of the station.

To indicate this meaning in Arabic, it is possible to use either the preposition /min/(from) or /9an'/(of). If the students do not know that the literal translation of the English preposition of in denoting this sense is /9an/, then they may use the incorrect preposition from.

C) Orthographic similarity (4.59%)

The baby fell off his chair.

They live 40 miles south of Glasgow.

The problem which Iraqi students may face is the confusion of of and off owing to the graphic similarity between the two forms.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

Primarily, the purpose of this dissertation is to point out certain difficulties Iraqi/Arab learners of English face in using

English prepositions of place relation. Errors committed by the examinees will be identified and classified according to their source of difficulty, i.e. whether they are interlingual or intralingual. It is hoped that the study will benefit Arab learners of English by acquainting them with the difficulties they may have in learning the use of English prepositions of place relation and the reasons for these difficulties. The study may also benefit teachers of English and curriculum specialists in the Arab World by acquainting them with the problems Arab learners face when dealing with the afore-mentioned area, thus enabling them to propose new methods for eliminating such errors.

The secondary purpose of this study is to examine whether Contrastive Analysis or Error Analysis, is the more useful and reliable methodology in establishing the treatment of errors in prepositional usage. The possibility of using a combination of the two methods is explored.

1.3. Procedures and Methodology

The thesis begins with the theoretical part of the study. At first, what has been said about Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis and Contrastive-Error Analysis was presented under the title Literature Review. Since the first two approaches have some drawbacks which have resulted in their criticism, the writer prefers to use both of them in an attempt to predict as many errors as possible in English prepositional usage by Iraqi learners. The following two chapters present general views given by different grammar schools about prepositional systems in English and Arabic to give the reader a general idea of how these two systems function in the two languages. What follows is a general survey of senses denoted by English and

Arabic prepositions of place relation. Then a comparison of these senses is introduced to find out points of similarity and difference between the two languages. The differences may constitute the problems which Iraqi/Arab learners confront in using English prepositions of place relation.

The thesis then proceeds to the practical part of the study. To highlight spots of difficulty which Iraqi learners of English face in using English prepositions of place relation, Error Analysis was carried out. A three-part test was given to Iraqi students studying English in the departments of English at the College of Arts, the College of Education and Teachers' Institute to test their proficiency in using English prepositions of place relation. These students will become teachers of English at primary and secondary schools in Iraq. The resultant errors are analysed and tabulated to find the sorts of errors committed and the causes behind their occurrence.

Then a comparison between Contrastive Analysis predictions and test results is introduced to discover the areas where they correspond and the areas where they do not. From this comparison, it emerges that the percentage of correspondence is 41% and that of difference is 60%. Most of the instances of difference are due to collocations between verbs and prepositions in Arabic. If this area had been incorporated in Contrastive Analysis, the percentage of correspondence would have been much higher.

Due to the distressing number of errors made by the examinees, the writer finds it necessary to present previous approaches, including his current one, which deal with prepositions pedagogy. This is an attempt to give curriculum specialists and teachers of English broad outlines about the way in which prepositions should be presented to Iraqi/Arab learners.

After examining the way prepositions of place relation are presented in the English Course for Iraq, it becomes obvious that neither is there logic nor any justification underlying such presentation. This type of presentation may be the real cause behind the examinees' disappointing answer sheets.

Finally, several samples of exercises dealing with contrasts among English prepositions are introduced. These exercises may be of benefit to teachers and curriculum specialists since they give them a general idea of how to present prepositions to English learners.

1.4. The Hypotheses

The typology of errors mentioned in 1.1. leads to the formulation of two types of hypotheses. The first group is related to mother tongue interference whereas the second is related to factors within the target language, i.e. English.

. .

A) Mother Tongue Interference Hypotheses:

1. Iraqi/Arab students will probably use the correct English preposition if it has a direct equivalent in the Arabic language.

2. They may use the incorrect preposition if the correct English preposition has no direct counterpart in Arabic.

3. A preposition may be omitted if it is not required in their native language.

4. Unnecessary prepositions may be added if their equivalents are required in Arabic.

B) Target Language Hypotheses:

1. Students may choose incorrect prepositions if there is some kind of semantic overlapping between them and the correct ones.

2. An incorrect preposition may be chosen as a result of partial learning.

3. Students may, though rarely, be confused about whether to use one form or another if the two forms share some kind of graphic similarity.

1.5. Why the Choice of this Topic?

The linguistic reasons for choosing this particular topic must already be fairly obvious. The personal motivation of the present writer stems from two separate sources. The first is that, as a teacher of English for more than fifteen years in Iraq, I have experienced at first-hand the difficulties that our students and even sometimes teachers of English face in the correct usage of English prepositions. I have also become aware of how little guidance there is on this topic from those concerned with English pedagogy in Iraq.

It is my hope that the teaching and learning of English prepositions of place relation will be facilitated through the preparation of exercises and drills based on the findings of this study.

The second source of motivation behind the choice of this topic is that the category "preposition" had been neglected for too long, and that a synthesis of both its semantic and syntactic functions is required.

1.6. Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Further Research

It is certainly beyond the scope of any one piece of research to investigate accurately and in detail all the usages and senses of all

English prepositions. Therefore, this study is restricted to a thorough investigation of prepositions of place relation. The following areas might also be suggested as topics for investigation:

1. An analysis of how to predict the types of errors made by learners while speaking the language.

2. An investigation of the related area of temporal prepositions, which are equally difficult for learners.

3. An examination of collocations of verbs and prepositions. This is a very complicated area, particularly for non-native speakers of English, and deserves fuller treatment than I have been able to give it here.

Chapter Two

Review of Related Literature

2.1. Introduction

In the course of learning a second/foreign language, learners regularly produce utterances in speech and writing which are erroneous or ill-formed, as judged by the rules of the second language. Traditionally, the attitude to errors was that they were a sign that the learner had not yet mastered the rules he was taught and that they were therefore to be avoided and eradicated through drill and overlearning of the correct form. If learning were efficient errors would not occur. According to Nelson Brooks (1964: 58) "Errors in language learning are something, which, like sin, ought to be avoided".

This point of view gave way to the notion that errors were an indication of the difficulties the learners had when dealing with certain aspects of the language. These difficulties could be explained by "the persistence of the habits of the mother tongue (MT) and their transfer to the new language" (Lado, 1957: 2). Errors expected to be made in the learning of a certain language could be detected through a comparison or contrast of the learner's MT with the target language TL and appropriate steps could then be taken to minimize these trouble spots and, consequently, to reduce the interference. From this notion has developed the whole industry of "Contrastive Linguistics".

2.2. Contrastive Analysis

To begin in rather simplistic terms, contrastive analysis (CA) is the description of a native language (NL) and a TL and a comparison of

the descriptions, which results in various statements about the two languages' similarities and dissimilarities (Fries; 1945; Lado, 1957; Banathy, Tragger and Waddle, 1966; Jacobovits, 1970; Di Pietro; 1971).

It is well-known that, although the influence of the first language in learning a second language was known by such linguists as Henry Sweet, Harold Palmer and Otto Jespersen, C.C. Fries and his colleague and collaborator, Robert Lado, were considered pioneers in this field. Fries, in his book "Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language" (1945), emphasizes the importance of CA, as does Lado in "Linguistics Across Cultures" (1957), in which he presents a systematic formulation of CA. These two linguists assert that teaching a foreign language can be more effective if the native and target languages are compared and contrasted to show the similarities as well as the differences (the problems). The teacher then has to concentrate on teaching the latter, i.e. the problems. They claim that the most serious difficulties in learning a second/foreign language arise from the interference effects of the NL and from any inherent difficulties in the TL. To both linguists, learning a foreign/second language constitutes a very different task from learning the NL.

In learning and teaching a second/foreign language, the "theory of transfer" plays an important role. According to this theory, the learner, unconsciously, tends to transfer the habits of his NL to the TL. Lado (1957: 2) states:

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 receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language ... as practiced by natives.

Whenever an individual attempts to learn a new language, his natural tendency is, consciously or unconsciously, to compare and assimilate the new language to the one he already knows. Obviously, languages differ but common elements do exist between them. That is why the learner's reflex of transferring elements from his own language is sometimes met with success. Such transfer is considered to be positive. When the transferred elements do not have their counterparts in the other language, the transfer is labelled negative since it causes the learner to commit errors in performance. Lado (1957: 59) claims:

The structures that are similar will be transferred and may function satisfactorily in the foreign language. But those structures that are different will be difficult because, when transferred, they will not function satisfactorily in the foreign language and will therefore have to be changed.

This means that similar elements in both the native and target languages are not problematic and those that are alien are difficult to learn. Therefore, the learner's difficulties are due to structural interference from the mother tongue, i.e. the learner's knowledge of his own language affects the learning of the TL. This is what is referred to as the "interference phenomenon". Christophersen (1973) states that the TL can influence the NL as well. What he means is that it is equally true that there is influence the other way round, i.e. there will be interference in the sense of mutual influence between

the two languages. Nevertheless, the difficulty in second/foreign language learning emanates from interference of the MT. This is why Wilkins (1972), in his comment on the CA described by Lado and others, says that learning a second/foreign language is essentially learning to overcome the difficulties which the learner encounters. He adds that when the structures of the two languages are identical, teaching becomes unnecessary, and mere exposure to the TL will be sufficient. Teaching, therefore, should be directed at the points which are structurally different.

CA, therefore, is a very important factor for the improvement and development of second/foreign language learning and teaching, since it helps to discover points of correspondence and discrepancy between the native and the learner of the TL. Wilkins (1972) argues that if CA is carried out properly, it will certainly determine what the learners have to learn and what the teacher has to teach. With regard to this point, Nickel (1971: 15) states: "

Both teacher and author require a knowledge of contrastive analysis in order to be able to predict, explain, correct, and eliminate errors due to interference between source and target language.

The optimism which was generated about the possibilities of CA led to an overapplication among its proponents who were not hesitant to make some excessive claims, one of which is stated by Lee (1968: 186) as follows:

1. That the prime cause, or even the sole cause, of difficulty and error in foreign language learning is interference from the learner's native language;

2. That the difficulties are chiefly, or wholly, due to the differences between the two languages;
3. That the greater these differences are the more acute the learning difficulties will be;
4. That the results of a comparison between the two languages are needed to predict the difficulties and errors which will occur.

These potential sources of errors, therefore, must be given special consideration in language instruction. One possibility for obviating such interference is the systematic analysis and classification of errors. This can be of considerable utility in predicting errors due to interference. A detailed CA of the source and target languages will be of great benefit since the results of the analysis can be directly used in language instruction.

2.3. Generative Grammar and Criticism of Contrastive Analysis

The rise of transformational generative grammar and cognitive psychology has brought about a different view of language and language learning. Its advent cast some doubts on the question of whether or not CA as a linguistic discipline is a valid foundation upon which foreign/second language teaching is to be based. The previous approach, based linguistically on structural grammar, psychologically on behaviourism and philosophically on empiricism, is now confronted with a new approach which is based linguistically on generative grammar, psychologically on cognitivism and philosophically on rationalism. With the growth in popularity of this approach, the CA hypothesis, which was one mainstay of audiolingualism, becomes a

central issue for criticism and attack. It began to be challenged both in theory and in research. It has been challenged by some generativists on the grounds that language learning involves not a mere study of actual utterances, but a study of the abstract system which speakers of a language share. In their opinion, language teaching must develop the learner's competence in such a way that he/she will be able to interpret not only utterances he/she has been exposed to, but also completely novel utterances. Chomsky (1959) criticizes the behavioural psychology and transfer theory on which the hypothesis is based for being incapable of accounting adequately for the nature of a system which is itself creative and open-ended or for the learner's active contribution to language learning. Newmark and Reibel (1968) support Chomsky's opinion and criticize the structural approach that sees the role of the learner as nothing but a generator of interference. They assert that ignorance rather than interference is the real cause of most errors. Wardhaugh (1970) agrees that CA makes unrealistic demands of current linguistic theory as there is as yet no comprehensive linguistic theory to formulate a set of linguistic universals, nor is there a theory of contrastive linguistics into which we can plug linguistic descriptions of languages being contrasted. Moreover, no language has been well enough described to permit a complete comparison between it and any other language. With regard to the numerous difficulties raised by the hypothesis, he wonders if it is really possible to carry out contrastive linguistics. Nickel and Wagner (1968) criticize the Contrastive Structural Series edited by Ferguson (1968), pointing out that the results of taxonomic grammatical theory in CA tend to overemphasize differences in the surface structures of languages

compared while neglecting more fundamental differences in the underlying deep structure. Finally, they give a warning not to be overenthusiastic about the contribution of CA in the immediate future. It will take years of hard work before the CA of any two languages can yield satisfactory results which can be used with profit in the preparation of adequate teaching material. Sciarone criticizes the CA approach for being too superficial. He (1970: 117) states:

The idea that difficulties of a foreign language can be predicted implies the supposition that corresponding structures are easy, and structures that differ, difficult. This supposition should be rejected on the ground of being too simplistic.

Stressing the need for empirical verification of CA, Wardhaugh (1970), makes a clear distinction between the strong and weak hypothesis of contrastive linguistics. The strong hypothesis states that the difficulties of the learner can be predicted by a systematic CA and teaching materials can then be devised to meet these difficulties. The weak hypothesis claims no more than an explanatory role for contrastive linguistics: where difficulties are evident from errors made by learners, then comparison between the MT and the TL may help to explain them.

The strong hypothesis, as previously mentioned, has been seriously questioned and criticized on both theoretical and practical grounds since the appearance of the generative approach, which deals with language universals.

2.4. The Incorporation of Generative Grammar into Contrastive Analysis

Di Pietro (1968) investigates the possibility of carrying generative grammar into CA, believing that CA should rest on language universals; otherwise, there is only arbitrariness in the surface manifestation of the contrast. According to him, the purpose of CA is to show that the universal deep structures manifest themselves in the surface structure through the transformation rules; there, transformation rules must be contrasted in order to see where the problematic areas will appear.

Newmark feels strongly about the reliability of generative grammar in predicting the similarities and differences in both the surface and deep structures. He (1970: 206) states:

A generative grammar is not only concerned with similarities and differences between any two languages in the surface structure but with those, i.e., similarities and differences, in the deep structure.

Eckman advocates the incorporation of universal grammar into CA. He (1977: 315) proposes:

The main principle behind the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH), namely that the comparison of the native and target languages is crucial in predicting the areas of difficulty that a language learner will have, can be maintained as a viable principle of second language acquisition. Moreover, I will argue that if the CAH is revised to incorporate certain

principles of universal grammar, it is possible to predict what can be termed the "directionality of difficulty".

Al-khafaji (1975) proposes a formal-functional approach for contrastive linguistics. His approach, combining what is good in both the structural and transformational contrastive approaches, has been applied to the comparison of time and tense in English and Arabic. This contrastive approach places emphasis on both the forms and the functions of the linguistic features being compared. By concentrating on meaning as well as syntax, the writer believes, CA will become most successful and relevant to language teaching.

However, studies in linguistic production, which have more to do with performance, such as the present study, will find surface structure more amenable and relevant than deep structure. It is the surface structures that learners have to recognise and produce and which teachers teach. We neither speak nor write in deep structures.

James (1971) considers the deep structure irrelevant in a pedagogically-oriented contrastive study because it is non-contributing to foreign language learning.

Jacobovits (1969: 74) maintains almost a similar view, stating,

Similarities and differences of surface structures may be more relevant for the operation of transfer effects in second language learning than deep structure relations, especially when one believes that at some level of depth, all natural languages are describable in terms of one universal system.

Selinker (1971: 36) suggests that

We need to focus our analytical attention on only the

observable meaningful data we have, i.e. the observable output which results from a learner's attempted production of a target language norm.

This view is advocated by many pedagogists who advise that "similarities and differences of surface structures may be more relevant to error analysis than examining deep structure relations".

2.5. Sources of Errors Other than Interference

Researchers as well as teachers have known for a long time that second/foreign language learners make some errors which cannot be attributed to the structure of their NL and, therefore, cannot be predicted by a comparison of the native and target languages. Hamp (1968) suggests that it is a mistake to pretend that CA is a physical science which is able to predict totally the errors that will be made as well as the exact reasons for them being made. If the errors are committed, it is possible to look for the cause, but it is not possible to say with absolute certainty which ones will occur and when they will occur.

Duskova, in her evaluation of her study, argues that, although MT interference plays an important role, it is certainly not the only factor. She (1969: 25) states:

While interference from the mother tongue plays a role, it is not the only interfering factor. There is also interference between the forms of the language being learnt both in grammar and lexis. In grammar, it is the other terms of particular English subsystems and/or their functions that operate as interfering factors, while in lexis words and

phrases are often confused as a result of formal similarity.

Buteau (1970) studied the errors made by 124 first-year college entrants studying French at St. Joseph Teachers College in Montreal, Quebec, Canada. Some of the subjects were monolingual English, others spoke English with French, Italian, and other languages at home. The data for analysis was obtained from a French grammar test and a short written composition. The results of the study suggest that interference is not sufficient to account for difficulties in second language learning. French structures which are similar to English are not necessarily the easiest for English speakers to learn; moreover, the probability of errors cannot be evaluated only by examining the degree of divergence between the two linguistic systems. Consequently, she suggests that other factors of difficulty must be taken into account, such as improper generalizations, number of alternatives involved in the choice of a particular structure, and awareness of TL contextual cues.

Richards is clear on the importance of both sources of errors, i.e. interference and other factors. He (1971: 214) states:

Interference from the mother tongue is clearly a major source of difficulty in second language learning, and contrastive analysis has proved valuable in locating areas of interlanguage interference. Many errors, however, derive from the strategies employed by the learner in language acquisition, and from the mutual interference of items within the target language.

The explanation of errors, Gradman (1970) and Wilkins (1972)

suggest, can be partly contrastive and partly non-contrastive. Therefore, CA, according to them, is only able to predict some of the errors students will make, but not all the errors. If CA were a total approach, it would be capable of predicting all of the errors which would be made and avoid the predictions of any errors which actually are not made. This is clearly not the case. MT interference is not the only source of errors; the problems of poor teaching, poor material, false analogy, overgeneralization, and inadequate mastery of grammar on the part of the learner must also be taken into consideration.

George (1972), in his book Common Errors in Language Learning, notes that two-thirds of the errors collected could not be traced to MT interference.

The fact that errors may result from other sources as well as from MT interference means that it is impossible to work out teaching materials on the basis of CA alone.

As a result of the criticism of the shortcomings of the CA approach, there has been a gradual abandonment by contrastive analysts since 1968 of the stronger claims and, increasingly, research projects in this area have broadened their scope in two directions: firstly, towards more theoretical objectives in language typology and the search for universals; and secondly, towards a psycholinguistic orientation concerned with the explanation of second language acquisition. Here a significant development has been the emergence of error analysis (EA).

2.6. Error Analysis and Interlanguage

These two new areas of second language research are reviewed together on the grounds that they are closely related, although it is

well-known that it is studies in EA which have led to the new field of research in IL. However, the distinction between them is not always clear in the current literature so that a study in EA is inevitably a study in IL as well.

Generally EA is defined as the systematic study of the errors that occur while the learner uses the TL. Richards gives a more formal definition of EA. He (1971: 12) states:

The field of EA may be defined as dealing with differences between the way people learning a language speak and the way adult native speakers of the language use the language.

EA, therefore, can be viewed as a means of finding a shortcut to the analysis of the learner's difficulties in second/foreign language learning. In this regard Richard (1974) claims that the learner's errors indicate the state of the learner's knowledge as well as the way which a second/ foreign language is learned.

The belief among those who support the EA approach is that EA developed because of the shortcomings of the CA approach. In several works EA has been suggested as a replacement or supplement to CA because it covers a wide range of concerns about language teaching.

Schumann and Stenson (1974) maintain that EA has been adopted by many linguists because CA is inadequate to account for students' errors.

Schachter and Celce-Murcia seem to agree with Schumann and Stenson that EA is receiving growing attention because of the failure of CA. They (1977: 442) state:

In view of such criticism of both the pedagogical value and

the theoretical justification of CA , it is not surprising that proponents of the CA hypothesis are dwindling rapidly and that the theory behind it has lost its prestige and popularity. Nor is it surprising that a new and different approach should be so well received. In this case, the newly elaborated methodological tool, EA, follows closely the psycholinguistic search for an alternative to the behaviourist's habit formation theory of language acquisitionone that attempts to explain the essentially creative nature of the language process described by Chomsky (1965).

As CA grew out of the structural approach, EA grew out of the transformational linguistic theory. Structuralism in linguistics took the view that the structure of every language was "sui generis" and therefore to be described in its own terms (Corder, 1978: 202). Consequently it followed logically that languages could not be compared.

Corder (ibid) claims that it was somewhat paradoxical to attempt to account for learners' difficulties, which were clearly related to features of their MT and explained psychologically as the transfer of their MT habits, by undertaking a theoretically impossible task.

With post-structuralist developments in linguistics, associated with the name of Chomsky, a willingness to seek common or even universal features in human languages became again a goal of linguistics, but now explicitly explained in psychological terms as inherent properties of the human mind. Language acquisition and second/foreign language learning could now be approached as a problem of cognitive learning and the possession of a second-foreign language was seen as the possession of knowledge of a certain kind ("competence") rather than as a set of dispositions to respond in a

certain way to external stimuli. Dulay and Burt (1974) state that a language user possesses a set of cognitive structures acquired by some process of data-processing and hypothesis formation in which the making of errors was evidence of the learning process itself and probably not only inevitable but necessary. It now became relevant to study a learner's linguistic performance in detail in order to infer from it the nature of that knowledge and the processes by which it was acquired. Corder (1978) claims that from the insights gained from such investigations one might be able to adapt the teaching methods and materials in order to facilitate the process of acquisition.

Central to these investigations was the analysis of the errors made by learners, since they presented the most significant data on which a reconstruction of his knowledge of the TL could be made.

Corder (1967) speculates that the processes of first and second language acquisition are fundamentally the same and suggests that when the utterances of first and second language learners differ, as clearly they do, these differences can be accounted for by differences in maturational development, motivation for learning and the circumstances of learning. The learner is seen as constructing for himself a grammar of the TL on the basis of the linguistic data in the language to which he is exposed and the help he receives from teaching. This process has been called the "creative construction hypothesis" by Dulay and Burt (1974: 253-278). The grammar a learner creates for himself is referred to by Nemser (1971: 55-63) as an "approximative system". These systems are evidently "transient" and their systematic nature is proved by the regularity of patterning of errors in perception and production of a given TL by learners sharing the same MT (See Nemser, 1971: 57). These approximative systems are

referred to by Corder (1971: 147-159) as "idiosyncratic dialects" of the TL, a point taken up by James (1971: 53-68) when he refers to language learning as a process of dialect expansion and points out that he has referred to what Nemser calls "approximative systems" as the phenomenon of "interlingua". This same phenomenon is referred to by Selinker (1972: 31-49) as "interlanguage". This term emphasizes the structurally intermediate status of the learner's language system between MT and the TL, while Nemser's term, "approximative system", emphasizes the transitional and dynamic nature of the system. Both terms have now received wide acceptance in the literature of EA and second/foreign language learning.

Selinker (1972: 36) also mentions the concept "fossilization". Fossilizations are forms, phonological, morphological, and syntactic, in the speech of a speaker of a second language that do not conform to the TL norms even after years of instruction and exposure to the standard forms. They also include those forms which, though absent from a learner's speech under normal conditions, tend to reappear in his linguistic performance when he is forced to deal with very difficult material, when he is in a state of anxiety, or when he is extremely relaxed. The crucial fact that the theory of second/foreign language learning has to explain is that the reappearance of these utterances is related to the interlingual system, not to the speaker's NL.

With regard to adult second language acquisition, Schumann (1975) introduces two other concepts, namely, pidginization and creolization. A pidgin is a language that develops to meet the communication needs of two or more groups of people who speak different languages and who are in a contact situation. As a result, pidginization produces IL

which is simplified and reduced. In the process of creolization, the function of language extends to the integrative and expressive uses, i.e. the affirmation of social identity and expression of psychological need respectively. Concomitant with this extension in function is the complication and expansion of the language structure. In a parallel fashion, when a second language learner attempts to mark his social identity within the target culture or to use his pidginized IL for expressive purposes, we can expect his IL to complicate and expand in ways similar to those fostered by creolization.

2.7. Error Analysis View of Errors

In several important articles Corder has contributed more than anyone else to the development of EA and its hypothesis. He makes an important distinction between mistakes and errors. Mistakes are slips of the tongue and are not systematic because they are performance failures made by all speakers. Errors, on the other hand, are systematic and reflect the learner's competence.

Corder (1967: 161-170) discusses the significance of errors for improving the teaching and learning processes. He claims that errors can be significant in three ways. First, to the teacher, in that they tell him how far towards the goal the learner has progressed and, consequently, what remains for him to learn. Second, to the researcher as errors provide him with evidence of how language is learned and what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in learning the second/foreign language. Thirdly, to the learner himself because we can regard the making of errors as a device the learner uses in learning the language. It is a way the learner has of testing his hypothesis about the nature of the language he is learning.

Dulay and Burt (1974) maintain that we cannot learn without "goofing" and that error-making is evidence of the learning process and the strategies used by the learner. Errors are treated as exponents of the learner's system and are now understood with reference to the provisional grammar that the learner constructs and develops. They are not viewed negatively as a pathological manifestation to be eradicated but as constructive features of second language learning.

It is usual in EA to identify three principal causes for errors. They are:

1. Interlingual Errors: this class of errors is also known as errors of transfer from the MT. They refer to those instances of deviation from the norm of the TL which occur as a result of familiarity with the NL. Therefore, they are errors made as a result of the use or non-use of elements, structures and meanings from the source language while speaking or writing the TL at all linguistic levels.

2. Intralingual and Developmental Errors: these errors do not reflect features of the MT, but result from the learning process itself. Corder (1978: 207) states:

Learners are seen to make inductive generalizations about the target language system on the basis of the data to which they are exposed. Since the data is necessarily restricted they will tend to overgeneralize and produce incorrect forms by analogy. Errors of this kind are independent of the mother tongue and one will find that they are common to all learners of any given second language.

3. Teaching-induced Errors: this class of errors is assigned to faulty teaching techniques or materials. Richards (1971: 103) called this process "hypothesizing false concepts". In relation to this type of error, Corder (1978: 208) states:

Little systematic study has been made to know the real cause of this type of errors and, consequently, errors not readily classed as inter-or intra-lingual cannot be confidently assigned to this category.

A study by Stenson (1974: 54-68) is considered the fullest account available so far of what she calls "induced errors".

Richards (1971: 12-22) stretches the range of EA by identifying the following sources of errors:

1. Interference: errors resulting from the transfer of grammatical and/or stylistic elements from the source language to the TL.

2. Overgeneralization: errors caused by extension of TL rules to areas where they do not apply.

3. Performance errors (mistakes): unsystematic errors that occur as the result of such things as memory lapses, fatigue, confusion, etc.

4. Markers of transitional competence: errors that result from a natural development sequence in the second language learning process.

5. Strategies of communication: errors resulting from the attempt to communicate in the TL without having completely acquired the grammatical forms necessary to do so.

6. Teacher-induced errors: errors resulting from pedagogical procedures contained in the text or employed by the teacher.

In another article, Richards (1971: 128) proposes that errors

should be classified into two categories. The first is interference errors which are caused by the NL. The second is intralingual and developmental errors which are caused by the structure of the TL. These errors reflect the learner's competence at a particular stage and illustrate some of the general characteristics of language acquisition.

Richards and Sampson (1974: 3-18) state that seven factors may influence second language learning. They are: language transfer, intralingual interference, the specific sociolinguistic situation, the modality of exposure to the TL, the learner's age, the instability of the learner's linguistic system, and the inherent difficulty of the particular item being learned.

It has become obvious now that the EA approach is hailed as more practical and realistic, and more capable of revealing the learner's actual errors and difficulties than the CA approach. Bhatia (1974: 347) supports the claim of EA when she sums up the results of her study as follows:

1. An error based analysis gives reliable results upon which remedial teaching can be constructed.

2. A study of the percentage values of different errors gives us an insight into the relative significance of a given error in the total context of the errors.

3. A course based on the frequency of errors will enable the teacher to teach at the point of errors and to emphasize more those areas where error frequently is higher.

2.8. Criticism of Error Analysis and Interlanguage

As clearly shown above EA and IL studies have provided valuable insights and suggestions with regard to the nature of errors and explanation of their possible sources as well as their significance in the second language learning process. Despite this fact, several critics have found that EA and IL are not exempted from certain weaknesses and limitations. Schachter uncovered the strategy of avoidance used by learners when they find a structure difficult to use. She (1974: 213) states:

If a student finds a particular construction in the target language difficult to comprehend, it is very likely that he will try to avoid producing it. Since the difficulty lies in the comprehension, an a priori prediction that the construction will be difficult will not be contradicted by the lack of production of that construction in the target language. We may very well be deluding ourselves into thinking that the students are not having any trouble with it at all, whereas, in fact, the students have so much trouble with it that they refuse to produce it.

Johansson discusses some possible reasons for shortcomings of EA. She (1975: 330) points out:

We can never achieve a full explanation of learners' errors by error analysis alone. There are also other difficulties. As always when a corpus is used, we never know when it is sufficiently large the corpora in error analysis usually consist of tests constructed for other purposes than identifying learner's errors: consequently one cannot expect them to provide a complete average of possible errors.

Schachter and Celce-Murcia (1977: 441) cautioned researchers about the use of EA. They outlined six potential weaknesses in the method, which, if not carefully monitored, are likely to produce deceptive results in any EA project:

1. The analysis of errors in isolation: the authors emphasize the necessity of analysing errors within the corpus under consideration, as well as the importance of non-errors, i.e. contexts where the erroneous structure could have occurred but did not.

2. The classification of identified errors: the authors argue that describing errors solely in regard to the TL system may lead to an erroneous interpretation of their origin. Cases of hidden transfer from the first language may occur.

3. Statements of error frequency should be made on the basis of relative vs. absolute frequency of error types, i.e. "a fraction obtained by using as a numerator the number of times an error was committed and as a denominator the number of times the error type could have occurred".

The extent of the corpus (number of words or sentences) should also be taken into consideration, as well as the number of obligatory and optional contexts.

4. Identification of points of difficulty in the TL may suffer where students are using an avoidance strategy. The difficulty will go undetected.

5. The ascription of causes to systematic errors of learners from different linguistic backgrounds do not preclude interference from the first language in the individual groups.

6. Sampling procedures are bound to contain biases of different

kinds: homogeneity of the group's linguistic background, individual differences, data samples.

White (1977) points out that in EA a difficulty arises in trying to assign sources of errors, especially as many errors seem to have multiple origins.

2.9. Contrastive-Error Analysis

Increasing evidence that EA alone could not give the complete picture of second/foreign language learning and the contrastivists' refutation of CA criticism fostered a renewed interest in the problem of language transfer and CA. One of CA's proponents, James (1971) wrote a paper entitled "The exculpation of contrastive linguistics", in which he answered the criticism that CA fails to predict all of a learner's errors and that interference from the first language (L1) is not the sole source of error. In an attempt to refute the first part of the criticism, he (1971: 57) states:

The most refutable feature of such criticism is that it imputes to CA claims that have never been made for it: CA has never claimed to be able to predict all errors, nor has it claimed linguistic omniscience about which 'choices' speakers will make.

As for the second part of the criticism, the writer (P. 54) points out:

CA has never claimed that L1 interference is the sole source of error. As Lado put it : 'These differences are the chief source of difficulty in learning a second language', and, 'The most important factor determining ease and difficulty in

learning the patterns of a foreign language is their similarity to and difference from the patterns of the native language'.

He goes on to add that 'chief source' and 'most important' imply that L1 interference is not conceived to be the only source.

With regard to the need for empirical verification of CA, Jackson (1970: 201-210) suggests two types of verification - primary and secondary. Primary validation is concerned with the objective replicability of the methods and procedures used in making the analysis. The secondary validation, on the other hand, is concerned with the extent to which the output of a CA matches the learner's errors. Fewer studies are oriented towards primary verification than towards secondary verification. Studies of the second type, which incorporate EA as an empirical component to verify and supplement CA may be termed "contrastive-error analysis".

This compromise between CA and EA is proposed by Catford (1968: 159) who suggests that, a sophisticated EA could reveal the particular difficulties encountered by a specific group of learners. Once this information is available, CA could be precisely directed to these areas of difficulty and could provide information on why the errors occur; at the same time teaching materials could be reconstructed so as to anticipate and circumvent problems.

Richards (1971) does not ignore interference from the MT or minimize its importance. On the contrary, he asserts that this kind of interference is clearly a major source of difficulty in second/foreign language learning. He also concludes that the technique known as CA has proved to be very valuable in pinpointing areas of MT

interference.

Schumann and Stenson (1975) feel that these two approaches are not incompatible but, rather, focus on different problems within the same approach. They suggest that CA in its weak form should be considered as just one aspect of the larger area of EA.

This view was previously claimed by Duskova (1969: 29) who states:

In conclusion, we shall attempt to answer the last question raised in this study as to whether CA of the source and TL can be entirely replaced by an error-based analysis. The present findings do not seem to justify such a procedure. They rather suggest that contrastive analysis might be profitably supplemented by the results of error-based analysis, particularly in the preparation of teaching materials. The value of contrastive analysis in the preparation of teaching materials is generally recognized, both as a means of prevention and of remedying errors. A further improvement of teaching materials based on contrastive analyses might be achieved by inclusion of the most common errors occurring outside the sphere predicted by contrastive analysis alone.

Nickel (1971: 11) advocates a similar view, stating:

Error analysis and contrastive analysis do not exclude but, on the contrary, they complete each other; the former covers more than only contrastive relations, the latter tries to describe errors but also to analyse one particular source in detail.

Wilkins (1972: 77-79) also states that if we are bound to take

learners' errors into account, it seems sensible to make EA the starting point for contrastive studies and not just a way of verifying hypothetical predictions.

Svartvik (1977: 1-15) maintains that EA is considered to be a more general term, incorporating CA for the explanation of interference phenomena.

Another proponent of combined CA and EA is Johansson who (1975: 249) argues:

The two types of analysis (CA-EA) are complementary rather than mutually exclusive. Since the primary aim of both is to reveal learners' difficulties, it seems useful to start by observing such difficulties, i.e. by error analysis, in order to reveal what areas need to be studied exhaustively. Alternatively, research topics could be chosen on the basis of teachers' observations, if reliable information is available.

In speaking about the contrastive-error analysis, James (1980: 187) has also declared that

Each approach has its vital role to play in accounting for L2 learning problems. They should be viewed as complementing each other rather than as competitors for some procedural pride of place.

From this review of the two approaches CA and EA, we can see that there is no conflict between the two approaches. If we compare the weak form of CA to EA, we find that in fact both make their departure from the same point: the TL as the learner speaks it. Differences arise on how to account for the data observed. CA looks for points of

interference from the learner's NL, while EA considers errors only in terms of the learner's formulation of the TL system.

That is why the present writer, for the purposes of this study, decided to use both approaches. He believes that both approaches should be regarded as complementary rather than mutually exclusive in the investigation of learners' difficulties. This is because the adoption of one approach, the writer believes, will not provide adequate explanation of the learner's behaviour in the TL. This view enables him to account for as many types of errors as possible. Thus, the CA approach in this study will be carried out to provide a linguistic explanation for known errors rather than as a predictive procedure.

Chapter Three

English Prepositions

3.1. Introduction

It is beyond the scope of any research to examine in detail all the alternative analytical approaches related to (the usage and function of) English prepositions. Although, this relatively neglected area of the language is quantitatively minor, the previous treatments that linguists have made reveal it to be a seemingly infinite source of observation, fact, hypothesis and debate. (cf. Lindkvist, 1950, 1972; Wood, 1967; Cooper, 1968; Leech, 1975; Bennett, 1975; Durkin, 1979; and others). Jackendoff (1973), in an invaluable paper on prepositions, remarks that these words suffer rather ignominious treatment in many grammatical proposals, which often "deny that the category 'prepositions' has any real syntactic interest other than as an annoying little surface peculiarity of English" (P.345). Thus, according to him, the three proposals introduced by Fillmore (1966), Becker and Arms (1969), and Postal (1971), are superficial. The first proposal treats prepositions as case markers, having equal status with the case inflections of Latin. The second proposal tries to reduce them to a subclass of the category "verb". The third treats them as realizations of features on noun phrases.

It seems that there is some kind of agreement among those who have dealt with this linguistic area, that prepositions, like the rest of all systems, are not fully understood. Their treatment at the hands of linguists, Durkin (1979: xii) asserts, runs "from outright abandonment as casualties of the hunt for universals, to extensive semantic descriptions, such as Bennett's (1975) very useful study".

This chapter will provide a brief survey of the English prepositional system including origin of prepositions, definition, classification (formal, functional, semantic, and position), omission, different grammar schools views and overlapping between prepositions and other grammatical categories (adverbs, verbs, adjectives, and participles).

The present writer believes that a general view of how the English prepositional system functions in the language will be of considerable benefit to the reader of this piece of work.

3.2. The Difficulty of English Prepositions

There seems to be a consensus among applied linguists that one of the greatest difficulties facing native and non-native speakers of English is the correct usage of English prepositions. "Among those who teach or learn the English language, prepositions have earned a reputation of difficulty if not of downright unpredictability." (Pitman, 1966). "The most difficult aspect of the English language to master is the idiomatic use of prepositions. Native speakers of English are not always sure of it, and it is even more troublesome to the foreign students." (Wood, 1967). "The greatest problem facing the students of English as a second language is, no doubt, the correct usage of English prepositions." (Takahashi, 1969). "As any English teacher well knows, our prepositions are a particularly troublesome lot to the nonnative speakers of English." (MacCarthy, 1972).

The reasons behind this phenomenon are multifarious. Many prepositions (perhaps most of them) are used in so many different ways that they often have no very clearly defined meaning apart from the

phrase or construction in which they occur. Fries (1940), for example, discovered an average of thirty-six and a half meanings recorded and illustrated in the Oxford English Dictionary for each of the nine most frequent prepositions : at, by, for, from, in, of, on, to and with. The number of meanings ranges from fifteen for the preposition from to sixty-three for of. The problem, as Fries points out, is compounded by the fact that these meanings are not inherent in the prepositions themselves but lie in the contexts in which they are used. This only adds to the difficulty, because a change of meaning due to a change of context burdens the student with the necessity of learning still more meanings for the prepositions. Furthermore, some meanings are not easily demonstrable and cannot be learned by association with clearly defined classes of words. Such meanings may be determined by the words preceding or following the prepositions, but still they remain confusing; you look at the evidence, listen to it, believe in it. Kreidler (1966: 120) comments:

Anybody who has taught advanced foreign learners of English is aware that these abstract, chaotic functions of the prepositions remain a stumbling block long after mastery of essentials has been achieved.

Another source of difficulty of prepositions is that combinations of different prepositions with the same word yield very different meanings. The "verb + particle" construction provides good examples of this. The meaning of a construction like "look at" changes completely if we substitute for or after for at. Moreover, the meaning of a "verb + particle" is sometimes completely different from the individual meanings of its constituents. For example, "make up for" in

1. We must make up for lost time

means "compensate for" ; "make up" in

2. We still need £5 to make up the required sum

means "complete" ; and "make for" in

3. He made for the door and tried to escape

means "move or speed towards".

Sometimes the difference in meaning is so subtle that it becomes very difficult for the student to distinguish among the shades of meaning indicated by different prepositions in different contexts. An example of this is the difference between "concerned about", which means "(to be) worried about something", and "concerned with", which means "(to be) engaged in doing something". In other cases, however, changing the preposition may not change the meaning as, for example, in certain uses of "think of" and "think about".

Another factor contributing to the difficulty of prepositions is the different prepositions required by different parts of speech of the same root word. We use one preposition with the verb form , another with the adjective, and still another for the noun form of the word. For example, we sympathize with someone, we have sympathy for him, and we feel sympathetic towards him.

Lentzer seems to concur with what has been stated but she introduces a different factor:

Learning the use of prepositions in a foreign language is especially difficult because although the differences in the properties of prepositions are fairly easy to grasp on a cognitive level, internalization of these differences is quite difficult. When called upon to perform, one tends to pull out one's "old map" of terrain and use prepositions that "sound right" but are often not the suitable semantic or syntactic equivalent.

(Lenzer, 1977 :2)

According to Takahashi, the main source of difficulty facing learners of English is the fact that English speakers, even those who teach, are often unable to offer a logical explanation for the occurrence of such prepositions or a conceptual guide for their usages. He (1969: 217) claims:

While definitions of prepositions and examples of their usages are available in school texts, reference books, and dictionaries, clear statements of their functions are lacking. Most learning is ultimately dependent on memorization and "getting used to" the usage by analogy and inference but these ways are accidental at best. Thus, learning by rote seems to be the accepted method.

Khamphang (1974: 215) makes a similar assertion and introduces the influence of the MT:

English language teachers are well aware that preposition usage is one of the most difficult for students learning English as a second language. While the correct choice of preposition is difficult for almost everyone, teachers feel that certain prepositions are easier or more difficult for specific groups of their students.

For Arab learners of English, prepositions are considered an everlasting problem. Makatash (1985: 47) asserts "Indeed, they are notoriously difficult and do not cease to cause confusion and uncertainty to Arab learners even at a fairly advanced level of learning".

In addition to the general problems stated above which are

inherent in English prepositions and face all learners, our students, whose NL is Arabic, face other problems related to the Arabic language. First, the number of Arabic prepositions is noticeably fewer than that of English prepositions, so the problem of under-differentiation is bound to arise in the interlanguage of Arab learners. Secondly, the number of senses associated with many English prepositions exceeds those associated with their Arabic counterparts. Thirdly, the collocational possibilities of prepositions and other lexical items are not in one-to-one correspondence in English and Arabic. For example in English, we say "famous for" and "laugh at", whereas in Arabic, we say /maʃhoorun bi/ (famous with) and /yadhaku 9alaa/ (laugh on).

Thus, literal translation of prepositions from Arabic into English, though sometimes positive, will cause many errors. This fact is asserted by Hall (1986: 4), as follows:

Many students of English make the mistake of trying to translate English prepositions into their own language. This is never successful because most prepositions express more than one idea, and while one meaning of the preposition may translate, the others often do not.

From the brief survey above, one can deduce the fact that the main source of difficulty in teaching and studying English prepositions is that these words are largely not governed by rules and if a rule is postulated, the great number of exceptions might suggest the rule was not worth postulating.

3.3. Definition of English Prepositions

Historically, the word "preposition" is of Latin origin, from "praepositio", which consists of two words "prae" meaning "before" and "positio" meaning "position" (Curme, 1931: 561). It is clear that this Latin name has been given to this class of words because, at least in one of their functions, they are placed before the nouns which, with them, form a prepositional phrase.

Some English grammarians, however, do not feel that "preposition" is the appropriate name for this class of words since it only applies to one function performed by prepositions while neglecting all their other functions. Sledd (1959: 233) asserts:

This name can scarcely be defended as appropriate, since it does not apply to this class of words in all the functions which they perform in language, nor even universally in a single function; but as it has obtained the sanction of long and general usage, we shall be content to employ it.

Roberts proposes that prepositions must be defined syntactically since most forms used as prepositions may also occur as other parts of speech. He (1954: 22) states:

A preposition is a word which relates a substantive, its object, to some other word in the sentence; the preposition and its object constitute a prepositional phrase (pp), which modifies the word to which the object is related.

Huddleston (1984: 336) criticizes the concept of "indicating a relationship" and considers it very vague and in need of considerable refinement to distinguish prepositions from, for example, verbs and conjunctions, which can also relate one noun phrase to another, as

"love" and "and" do in the following two examples:

4. Ed loves Kim.
5. Ed and Kim arrived.

Semantically speaking, prepositions are traditionally defined as words which express no meaning without the help of another word. Harris (1951: 253) goes further when he states:

A preposition is a part of speech, devoid itself of signification; but so formed as to unite two words that are significant and that refuse to coalesce or unite themselves.

Michael (1970: 454) seems not to agree with such a definition. To him, a preposition is a word that has the capability of changing, adding to, and taking away from the meaning of words to which it is prefixed. Consider the following two examples:

- 6a. Tom is playing in the garden.
- 6b. Tom is playing near the garden.

The above two examples show that the only word that is changed is the preposition and this change adds some meaning to the word after which the preposition is used, i.e. "play in" and "play near" distinguish two locations of playing in relation to the word "garden". That is to say, the verb action in the first sentence takes place in an enclosed space which is the "garden", while "playing", in the second sentence, happens outside the garden, (= outside, in the open air).

3.4. Schools of Grammar and their Views of Prepositions

It will not be possible to examine in detail all the alternative views of the role of prepositions in various different grammatical

treatments. However, it will be of interest to present to the reader how prepositions have been treated by the different schools of grammar, namely, traditional, structural, transformational and case grammar.

Schools of grammar have discussed the various functions and uses of prepositions, using different analyses, criteria and terms. The different trends of thought adopted by each school denote different analytical approaches. Traditional grammarians like Curme, Poutsma, Jespersen and others, who are concerned with meaning as the basis of their analysis, regard a preposition as a word which indicates a relation between the noun or pronoun it governs and another word, which may be a verb, an adjective, or another noun or pronoun (see Curme, 1935: 87). Thus, in the following examples:

7. She voted against us.

8. She was dependent on us.

9. Her opinion of us improved.

the prepositions against, on, and of show a relation between "us" and the verb "voted", the adjective "dependent" and the noun "opinion" respectively.

Prepositions, according to such writers, constitute a distinct part of speech. Jespersen (1924: 87) asserts that "in nearly all grammars, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections are treated as four distinct parts of speech".

Structural grammar regards prepositions as a group of "function words" (Fries, 1941) rather than as a major part of speech, since, as stated by Frank (1972: 163), they consist of a small class of words that have no characteristic formal endings. Structural linguists such as Bloomfield, Fries and others give the term "function words" to

those words that have little or no meaning apart from the grammatical function they expand. One of the advocates of this school, Gleason (1961: 159) asserts that "prepositions are function words with less lexical and more structural meaning".

In their analysis of different aspects of the language, structuralists have not paid much attention to meaning but rather to form and position. Form is the clue whenever structuralists define any part of speech but when it fails to provide an answer, they resort to position as it is the case with prepositions. According to them, prepositions are words and word-groups that occur in positions similar to that of on in the following sentence:

10. You will find it on the table.

by

at

under

above

Generally, a single test-frame is not enough to identify all words functioning as a particular part of speech. Some examples may be too restricted in usage to fit a particular frame as is the case with other prepositions such as between, among, etc. in the above example (see Christophersen, 1969: 79).

Transformational grammarians, concerned with deep structure rather than with surface structure, propose a new system for analysing the language. According to them, the usage of prepositions should be approached semantically by means of transformation, i.e. by applying different transformational rules to the sentence in which a preposition is used to know whether the word used in that sentence is a preposition or not. Yet, Jacobs and Rosenbaum (1968: 140) state that

"this transformational process is not understood at present".

The first interesting fact introduced by transformational grammarians is that all NP's, in their deep structure, seem to have prepositions associated with them, even though these prepositions are frequently omitted from surface structures (see Jacobs and Rosenbaum, 1968: 136). To illustrate this, the sentence

11. the army destroyed the fortress
contains no preposition in its superficial form. But, the above sentence, when nominalized, the preposition of has been introduced to the left of the NP "the fortress", e.g.

12. The army's destruction of the fortress was ruthlessly carried out.

The other fact introduced by these grammarians is that prepositions are introduced in the deep structure as case markers on noun phrases. This fact is asserted by Jacobs and Postal (1968: 138) and Akmajian (1975: 31) who suggest that prepositions originate as features in the deep structure, i.e. as features of noun segments. This suggestion accounts for the fact that the choice of a preposition in a prepositional construction seems to be dependent upon a noun, as in the following examples:

13a. The tournament is on Monday.

13b. The tournament is at noon.

13c. The tournament is in May.

The prepositions on, at, and in are dependent upon the nouns following them.

The choice of particular prepositions, however, seems to depend on verbs as well as on nouns. This is why only the (a) sentence of the following pairs is grammatical:

14a. John flew to Bombay.

14b. * John approved to Bombay.

15a. John approved of Bombay.

15b. * John flew of Bombay.

Here the only difference between the two sentences is the verb while the noun has nothing to do with the choice of prepositions.

Besides, most transformational generative grammarians, as stated by Becker and Arms (1969: 5) distinguish prepositions from verb particles which act differently from prepositions in permutation and question posing. To illustrate this fact, the following two examples are introduced.

16. The chemist shook up the mixture. (particle)

17. The chemist walked up the street. (preposition)

In the first sentence, the word up can be moved around to the other side of the object, giving the sentence above.

18. The chemist shook the mixture up.

On the other hand, in the second sentence, the preposition up cannot be moved around to the other side of the NP following it. If this permutation is carried out, the following ungrammatical sentence results:

19. * The chemist walked the street up.

The preposition up in sentence (17) can be shifted to the front of the sentence when a question is asked, e.g.

20. Up what did the chemist walk?

On the other hand, the word up in sentence (16) cannot be preposed in a question. If it is, the following ungrammatical sentence results:

21. * Up what did the chemist shake?

When question sentences containing verb particles are generated, the

particle must remain in its original position. It cannot be preposed, e.g.

22. What did the chemist shake up?

(See Jacobs and Rosenbaum, 1968: 136)

As for the generation of PPs in the deep structure, Akmajian argues that the phrase structure rule for expanding NP, i.e.

NP \rightarrow (Det) N

will not generate sentences such as:

23. The dog ran behind the house.

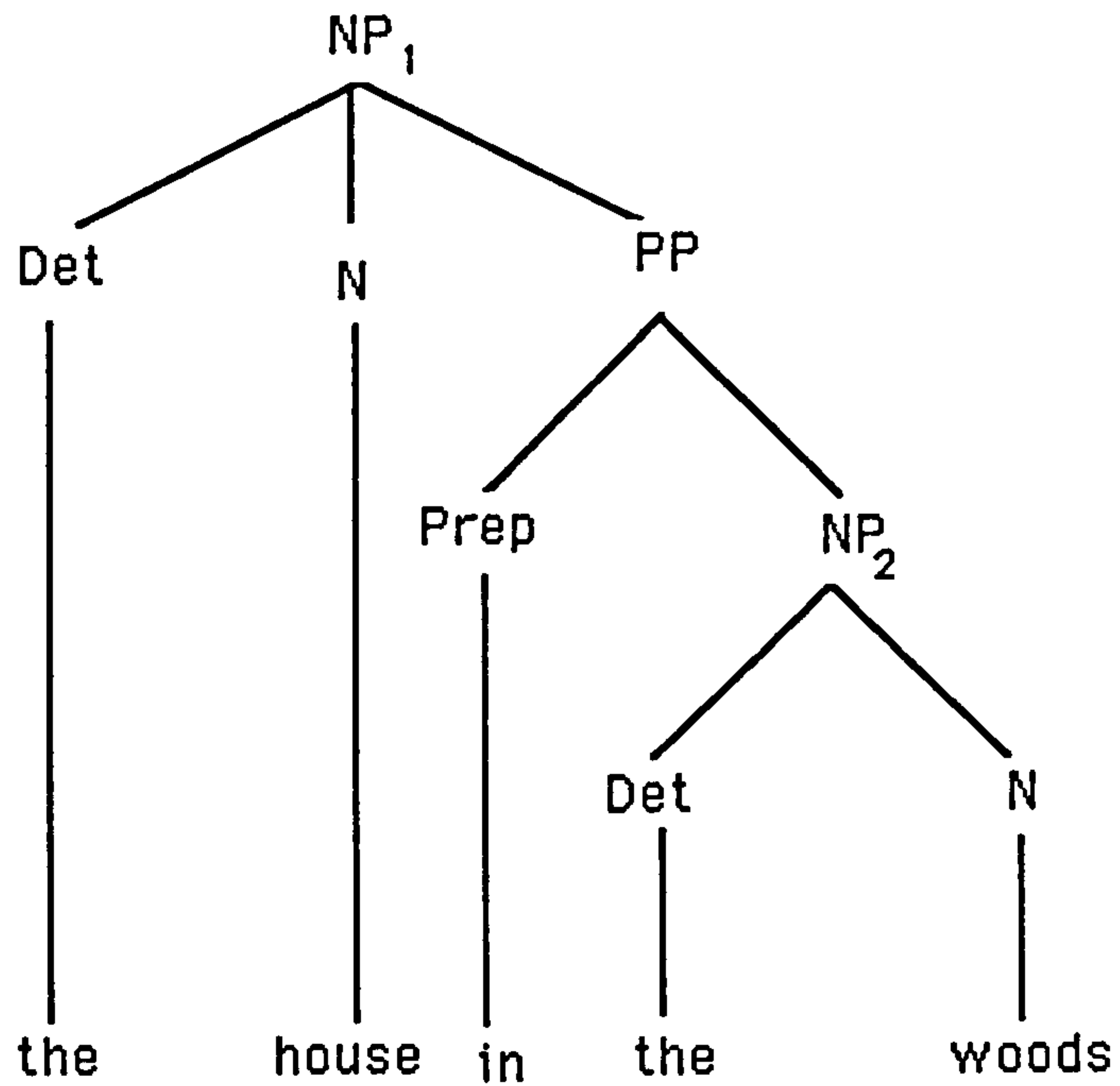
since the rule provides for no elements following N. Therefore, that rule has to be modified as follows to generate NPs like the one in (23):

NP \rightarrow (Det) N (PP)

An optional PP appears after the head noun and this rule, in conjunction with the rule for expanding PP, i.e.

PP \rightarrow Prep NP

will automatically generate NPs such as the following:

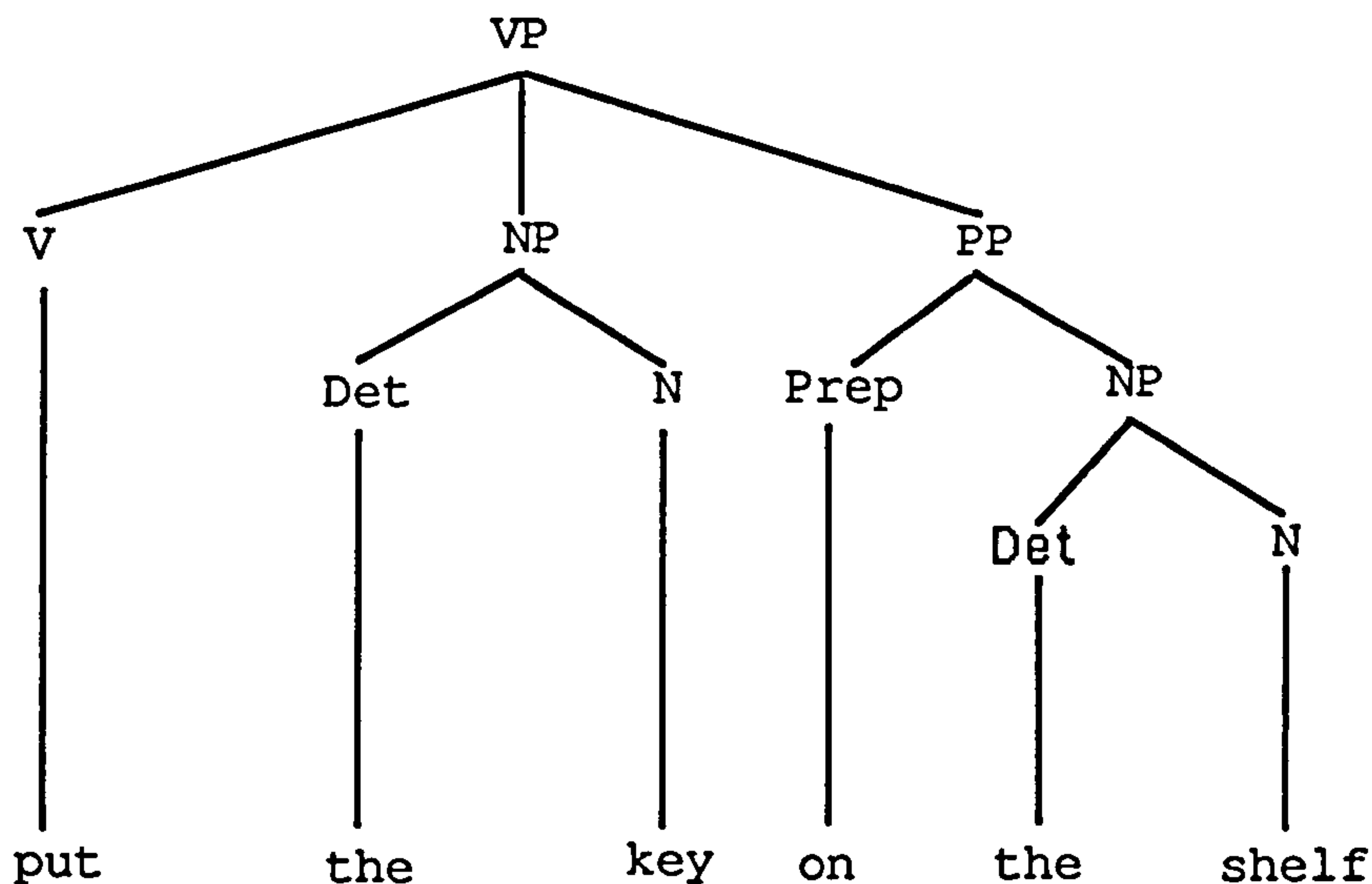


(Akmajian, 1975: 44)

It is interesting to note that we have another rule that includes PP:

$$VP \rightarrow v \left\{ \begin{array}{c} NP \\ Adj \end{array} \right\} (PP)$$

Consider the following tree diagram:



(Akmajian, 1975: 46)

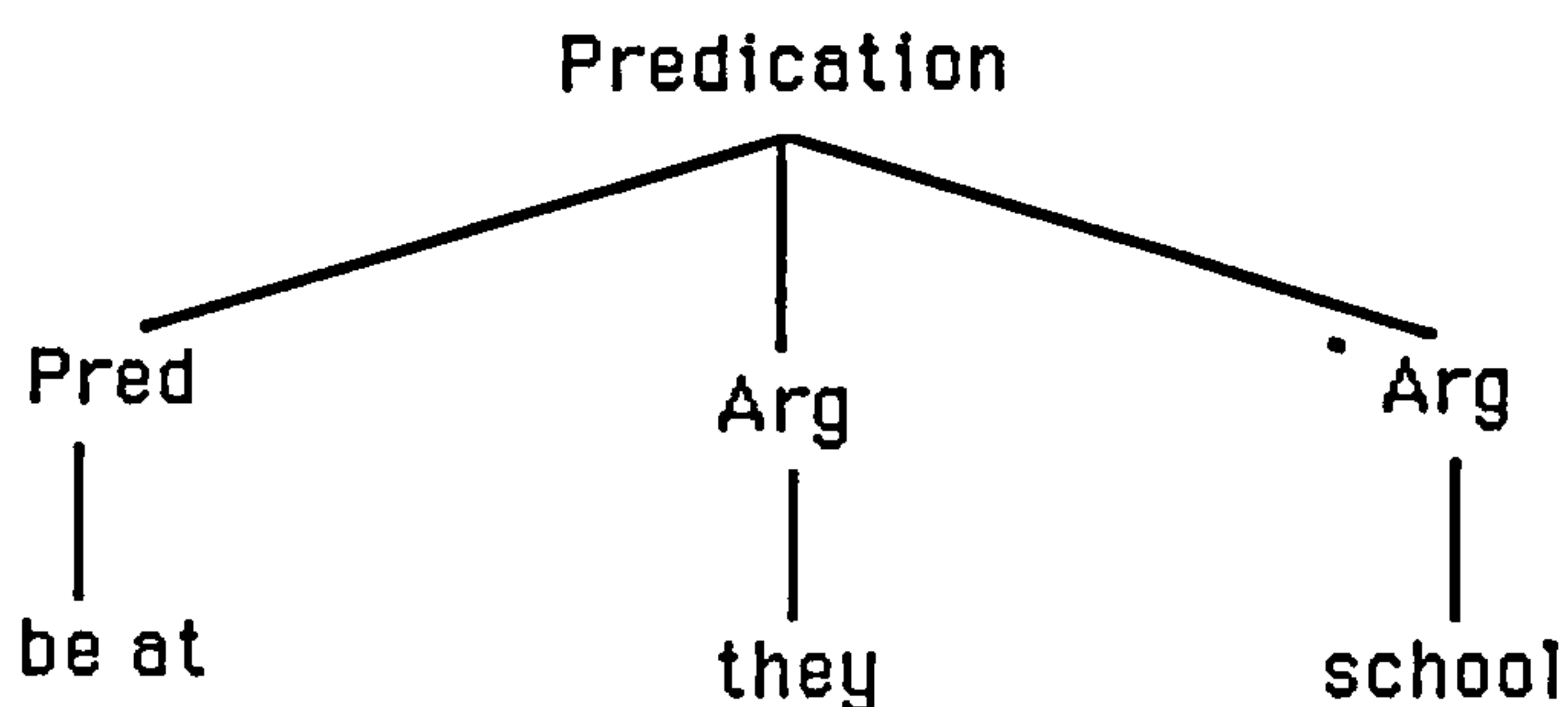
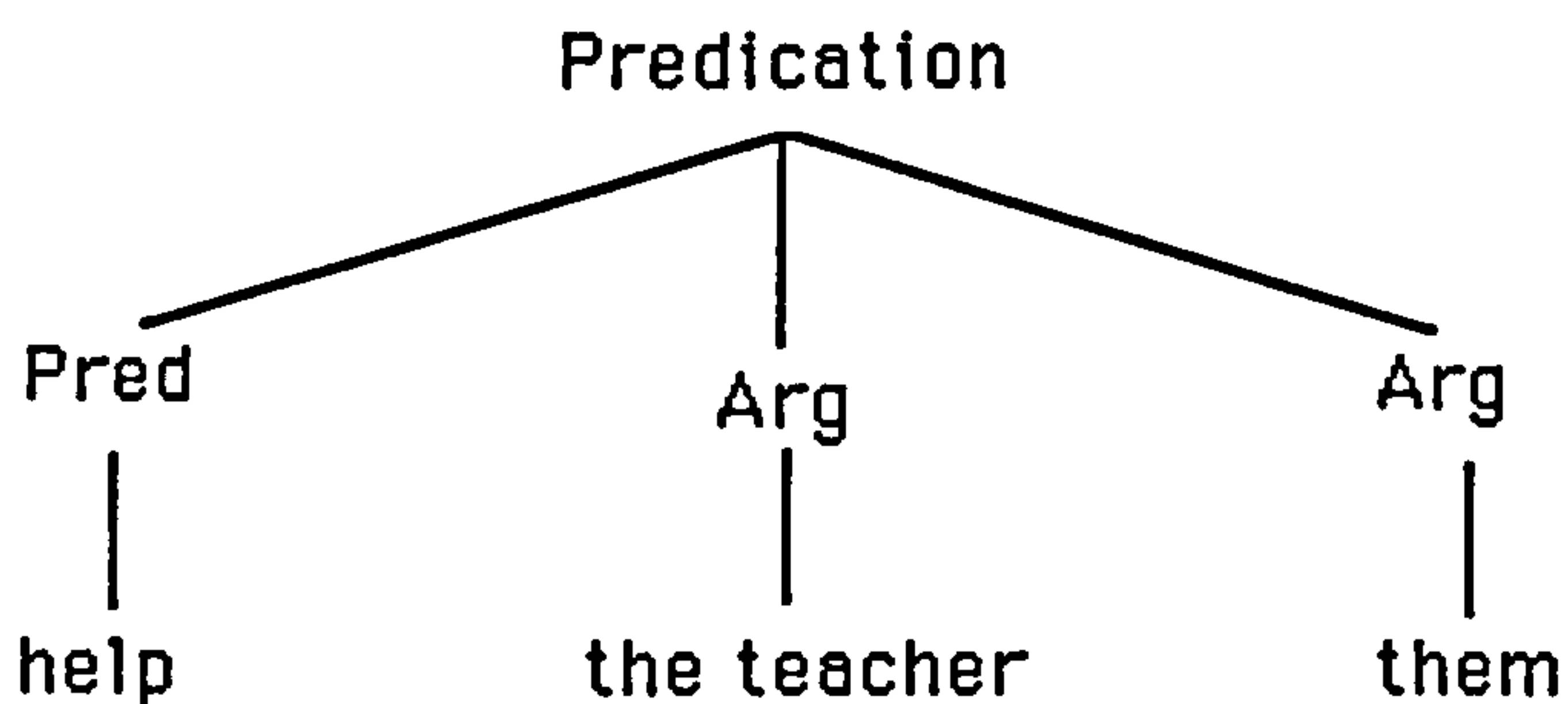
It may be concluded from this relationship that the choice of a preposition normally depends on the interaction of the verb as well as the noun.

Case grammarians like Fillmore (1966), Chafe (1970), Anderson (1971), Leech (1974), generally view prepositions as case markers, selected on the basis of structural features of the sentence. According to Leech (1974: 134), prepositions can be treated as "predicates in their own right and can be studied through predication analysis". He goes on to claim that "prepositions are, like verbs, relational linking elements which predicate relationships between lexical items". Predication, according to the semantic theory used in case grammar, can be analysed into predicates and arguments or referring expressions. Consider the following two examples:

25. The teacher helped them.

26. They are at school.

In the first example, the verb "help" is the predicative element and "the teacher" and "them" are its arguments. In the second example, "they" and "school" are considered the two arguments of the predicate "be at". These structures can be formalized in terms of tree diagrams as follows:



The brief survey above shows that prepositions constitute a unique set of language items which has not been subject to the same kind of extensive analysis that has been devoted in recent years to the major syntactic categories.

The present writer strongly opposes the view that prepositions should be treated merely as features on verbs or nouns. They must

instead be accorded the right to a small but dignified syntactic category of their own.

3.5. Classification of English Prepositions

Prepositions can be viewed from different angles, namely, formal, functional, semantic, and position.

3.5.1. Formal Classification

There seems to be some disagreement among grammarians in classifying English prepositions in relation to their morphemic structure. Generally speaking, prepositions in English are either simple, such as at, in, to, by, etc., or complex/compound, such as in front of, away from, out of, etc. (cf. Sweet, 1960; Heaton, 1965; Stageberg, 1965; Quirk et al, 1973; Leech, 1975).

Some grammarians, such as Francis (1956) and Stageberg (1965), classify simple prepositions morphologically, e.g.

- a. one-syllable prepositions: in, by, to
- b. two-syllable prepositions: about, above
- c. ing-prepositions: during, regarding

Most of the complex/compound prepositions are in one of the following categories:

- a. adverb + preposition: as for, as to, away from, out of
- b. conjunction + preposition: except for, but for
- c. adjective + preposition: due to
- d. verb + preposition :owing to
- e. preposition + noun + preposition: by means of, instead of, in comparison with (See Quirk et al, 1973: 301).

Prepositions are classified by other grammarians into three types.

Francis (1956: 306) classifies prepositions into simple, such as for, from, at, etc., double such as across from, away from, into, etc. and phrasal such as in regard to, in front of, in addition to, etc.

Wood (1967: 7) classifies prepositions into proper, such as over, above, etc., compound such as instead of, owing to, etc., and pseudo-prepositions such as on the side of, in the cause of, etc. According to him, such groups of words are not prepositions, but they have prepositional force in certain contexts or structures.

Throughout the present study, prepositions will be dealt with under "single" and "compound".

3.5.2. Function of Prepositions

Discovering what a word means independently of any linguistic context is difficult. This is particularly true of prepositions since they are words of relation. A preposition does not function singly, but forms a grammatical unit with its object, i.e. the word or words following it. This grammatical unit, i.e. a preposition with its object, is called a "prepositional phrase" (PP). A PP is either a single NP (27) or a clause (28):

27. I live in this house.

28. He spoke of what he had done.

A PP has, like any other phrase, a function to perform as an element of the clause; it may do the work of:

a. a noun phrase

29. I am referring to before the World War.

In this example, the PP is the object of the preposition to.

b. an adjective phrase

30. The box on the table is made of mahogany.

The PP in this sentence qualifies the noun "box".

c. an adverb phrase: in its adverb function, a PP may denote:

1. time

31. He will arrive on Sunday.

2. place

32. They live in London.

3. manner

33. He wrote the letter with care.

4. degree

34. He is taller by two inches.

5. result

35. He worked himself to death.

6. condition

36. You could not do it without my help.

7. concession

37. I'll do it in spite of your trying to stop me.

8. purpose

38. John works for grades.

9. agency

39. The book was written by my friend.

10. Instrumentality

40. He went home by bus.

11. means

41. He got rich by dishonesty.

12. association

42. I can go with you.

13. cause

43. He died of fever.

d. adjunct

44. The people were singing on the bus.

e. disjunct

45. To my surprise, the doctor phoned.

f. conjunct

46. On the other hand, he made no attempt to help the victim.

g. complementation of a verb

47. We depend on you.

h. complementation of an adjective

48. I am sorry for his parents.

A PP may have a nominal function as the subject of a sentence, as in:

49. Between six and seven will suit me.

A PP may also occur as an objective complement, modifying the object.

In a case like this, the objective complement needs a transitive verb of a certain category to occur in the sentence, as in:

50. They found her in a rage.

It is sometimes said that PPs are used adjectivally in sentences like:

51. We put him in the car.

The PP "in the car", Roberts (1954: 225) states, is used adverbially, not as an adjective complement. The best test to distinguish between the two functions of the prepositional phrases in sentences (50) and (51) is to try to substitute a single-word adjective. Instead of sentence (50) we can have:

52. They found her angry.

Hence, "in a rage", is adjectival. But no adjective can be substituted in sentence (51) whereas an adverb can be.

The object component PP may be suspended when a given NP serves as the object of two prepositions. Therefore, the meaning of the first PP is not clear until the end of the second phrase is reached. For example, in the following sentence,

53. We are interested in and indebted to the boy.

"boy" is the object of the preposition in and of the preposition to. The words "and indebted to", therefore, separate the preposition in from its object "boy". Berry (1963: 88) states: "Some authorities condemn the suspended prepositional phrase under any circumstances." If, however, one uses it, one must guard against omitting either of the prepositions. The following sentence,

54a.* He had a need and interest in athletics.

is ungrammatical because no preposition is given after "need". Therefore, it is assumed to be in. To correct the sentence one should say,

54b. He had a need of and interest in athletics.

3.5.3. Prepositions Viewed Semantically

Prepositions can be semantically viewed as "words without any meaning" (Sledd, 1959: 243). In fact, a preposition is not a word which has no meaning at all, and it is not a word with a clearly determined meaning. The use of one preposition instead of another may denote a different meaning (see PP. 7-8).

In analysing the meaning of prepositions, one may find that they have more than one meaning (see P.2). Bennet (1975: 4-5) states that a lexeme may have the same meaning in two separate contexts (55a and 55b) or may not (56 and 57):

55a. She was sitting by the fire.

55b. She was sitting by the window.

56. Return it to me by Monday.

57. He travelled by bus.

Consequently, to identify prepositions fully, it is not enough to describe their lexical meanings. Clark (1968: 421) confirms this fact when he points out that, although dictionaries define a preposition in terms of other prepositions which can substitute for it in various contexts, they do not usually indicate what the preposition denotes. This, he adds, "emphasizes the need to treat prepositions and their meanings as a system of relations". What Clark states confirms the fact that prepositions, as function words, are relatively weak or lacking in lexical meaning. They derive their meaning from their relation to other words in the context.

The meanings expressed by prepositions are very numerous, but they may be classified under three heads: (a) space, including place, rest and motion, (b) time, and (c) other abstract relations such as quantity, manner, cause, etc. All three classes of meanings are often expressed by one preposition. Each preposition generally has some one fundamental meaning which can denote one or more of the above classes. Furthermore, many of the prepositions are employed in figurative uses, i.e. denoting abstract concepts. For example, we say,

58. That man's house is above/beyond your house.

The two prepositions in this example are employed in their original literal use. But when we say,

59. That man lives above/beyond his means.

there is a figurative sense denoted by the same prepositions, i.e. to express something that the mind conceives to have a resemblance to the relations of objects in space.

3.5.4. Position of Prepositions

A preposition is normally placed before the noun (or noun equivalent) concerned. It often immediately follows the verb, e.g.

60. We all went into the room.

If the verb takes a direct object, the preposition follows the direct object and immediately precedes its object noun, e.g.

61. He asked me for the book.

There used to be a common belief among English grammarians, especially those influenced by Latin grammar and the false prescriptive rules induced by it, that a preposition should always precede a noun (or a noun equivalent) and therefore should never be placed at the end of a sentence. This supposition has no grammatical support and may in fact lead the student to errors of construction (Heaton, 1965: 134). Cases in which end-position is, if not the only possible one, at least the most natural, are so numerous that it is needless to quote examples. If there are obvious cases where the preposition must go at the end, there are just as many where end-position is impossible (or if it is possible, it would be contrary to normal usage and idiom) and there are still others where front-position and end-position seem equally acceptable.

End-position, according to Wood (1967: 86), is normally occupied by a preposition in the following circumstances:

a. when a preposition adheres to an intransitive verb to make a transitive equivalent with the interrogative word as part of its object, as in:

62. Which house shall we live in?

b. when in particular situations, the preposition of what would normally be an adverbial phrase becomes attracted to the verb to make

a combination of a type similar to the preceding. Thus the sight of a number of people looking at something will prompt the following question:

63. What's everybody looking at?

c. with combinations of the type to "make fun of", where the group consisting of verb + object + preposition has the force of a compound transitive verb, as in:

64. Who are you making fun of now?

d. after an adjective, adverb or participle to which the preposition and its object form an adjunct, as shown below:

65. Who did you sit next to?

e. when the preposition forms a close group with an adverb, end-position of the adverb means also end-position of the associated preposition, as in:

66. Which page did we get up to?

f. in set phrases like "in aid of", "in favour of", "in lieu of", e.g.

67. which of the three proposals are you in favour of?

g. when the preposition is used with the force of an adjective, as after in the sense of "in search of" or "in pursuit of":

68. Who were the police after?

h. when the sentence is introduced by an interrogative adverb like "where", as in:

69. Where did this bus come from?

In relation to Heaton's view, stated on the previous page, Quirk et al (1973: 300) have introduced a clear distinction between the optional and the obligatory uses of prepositions in end-position. In the

following constructions, prepositions must occupy end-positions:

a. wh-clause

70. What I am sitting on is a new chair.

b. exclamations

71. What a mess he's got into!

c. passives

72. That house will have to be lived in by someone.

d. infinitive clauses

73. He is impossible to work with.

On the other hand, there are some cases where a preposition optionally comes at the end of a sentence. The following are examples of such cases:

a. wh-question

74a. Which house did you leave it at?

or

74b. At which house did you leave it?

b. relative clauses

75a. The old house which I was telling you about is empty.

or

75b. The old house about which I was telling you is empty.

From all the above stated facts we come to the conclusion that it is difficult to lay down a definite rule for end/front position. However, examination of a large number of examples suggests that the following are, to a large extent, determining factors where both positions are possible:

a. centre of interest: both of the following examples are

acceptable:

76a. In which room is the lecture to be held?

76b. Which room is the lecture to be held in?

If our immediate interest is in the room as such rather than in the lecture, the question presents itself as in (76b); but if we are primarily interested in the lecture and think of the room merely as the location of it, our question will probably begin with the preposition, as in (76a).

b. elliptical sentences: another case where end and front position alternate is in certain elliptical sentences, where, after the deletion of the verb, the preposition goes after its object, i.e. the interrogative pronoun:

77. He has just come back _ where from?

On the other hand, a preposition has front-position if the interrogative word is an adjective, as in:

78. We will wait for you outside the hall _ At which entrance?

A preposition may, however, be given a front position before a pronoun if it is an echo from a previous sentence or if it is desired to emphasize the pronoun, as in:

79. You must keep that book in one of these drawers _ Yes, but in which?

c. rhythm and euphony: sometimes when either position is possible, rhythm or euphony may indicate one or the other. For example, we would probably ask:

80. On what do you base your argument?

but

81. Your argument sounds convincing enough, but what do you base it on? (See, Wood, 1967: 94).

d. proximity: a preposition, if placed at the end, must not be too far separated from its object because the mind may not be able to link the two and consequently the sentence will not be easily intelligible. For instance, though there is no objection to

82. Who did you lend that book to?

there is every objection to

83. Who did you lend that book with the pictures in to?

e. concreteness: this is often an influential factor. Though we should probably prefer to say,

84a. On whose typewriter did you type this letter?

the alternative,

84b. Whose typewriter did you type this letter on?

would not be impossible. But we could not make the same transposition in the case of

85. On whose authority did you type this letter?

The preposition on has a different meaning in the first example from that which it bears in the second, and while we can visualize a typewriter on which a letter is being typed, we cannot visualize someone's authority on which it is being typed.

g. direct and indirect questions: in indirect questions, end-position, though not invariably the rule, is the more usual, even if the corresponding direct question would have front-position. Thus,

86. To whom did you give the message?

but

87. He asked me who(m) I gave the message to.

From the points outlined above, we can see that end-position is natural in English. This fact is asserted by Quirk and Greenbaum when

they state that "the position of a preposition at or near the end of a sentence has been one of the outstanding features of our language." (Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973: 300).

Finally, it is frequently stated by most grammarians that where there is a choice between the two constructions, i.e. end and front-position, the version with the preposition at the end is more characteristic of colloquial English, while front-position is more often found in formal and therefore written style. The reason for this, as clarified by Wood (1967: 94), is probably that in real-life situations we think more directly and concretely, so that our minds are predisposed towards the centre of interest, which prompts us to ask "Who....by?", whereas writing, being an artificial and second-hand means of communicating our thoughts, is less conducive to spontaneity and directness and tends towards "By whom?".

3.6. Correlation of Roles with Prepositions

It has been pointed out that the same role may be introduced by a variety of prepositions, and that the same preposition may be used to introduce different roles. Langendoen (1970: 86), taking Fillmore's views (1968) into consideration, introduced the following list of overlapping:

<u>Role</u>	<u>Preposition</u>
Agent	by
Instrument	with, by, through
Cause	by
Goal	to
Source	from

Location	in, at, on, near, etc.
Movement	into, onto, toward, from, etc.

This list reveals that instrument, for instance, is introduced by with, and possibly also by by or through, as shown below:

88. He broke the window with a stone.

89. Machines are driven by steam.

90. These articles must not be sent through the post.

The preposition by may be used to introduce, besides the previous meaning, i.e. instrument, agent and location, e.g.

91. The window was broken by her.

92. Come and sit by me.

Moreover, it is suggested that location and movement may be subdivided into such roles as "location in", "location at", "location by", "movement to", "movement from", "movement around", "movement through". However, the choice of particular location or movement-designating prepositions is not entirely fixed by the main verb since such a choice may also depend on the noun (or the noun equivalent) following, as illustrated below:

93. I live in Glasgow.

94. I live on the east side of town.

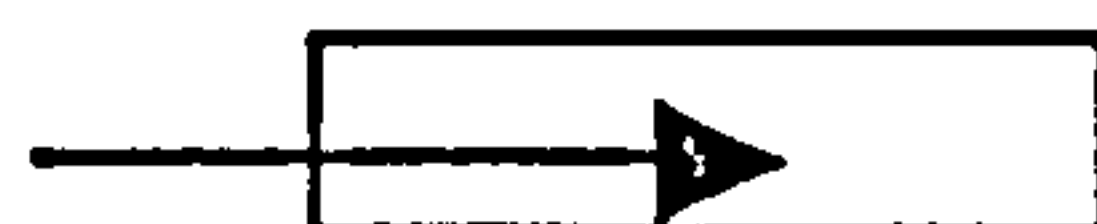
95. I live at 145 Buccleuch Street.

Here, the choice of the prepositions in, on, and at has nothing to do with the verb "live" but rather with what the following noun designates.

To illustrate the overlapping between various types of prepositions, Leech and Svartvik (1975: 84) present the following definitions. A place which is thought of as a surface with length and

width will be a proper position of contact associated with on. However, prepositions like into, in, out of, and through, though normally associated with three-dimensional space, can also be associated with surface when it is thought of as an area of ground or territory enclosed by boundaries. The following examples, with the diagram drawn opposite each, illustrate this fact:

96. They crowded into the street.



97. I have a house in the street.



98. They flew out of the country.



99. We went through the park.



Bennet (1968: 164) has also noticed this fact. He presents the two examples below to confirm that the location of the same space can be introduced by a variety of prepositions:

100a. At this moment he is on a train going to London.

100b. At this moment he is in a train going to London.

If we set aside the possibility that "on a train" might mean "on the top of a train", the two examples above would normally describe the same situation, though the ideas of on-ness and in-ness are essentially different. A situation of the same kind can be perceived as getting onto or into something. Thus whether one uses on or in in (100), the situation described is the same. On the other hand, the following examples are presented to show that the same preposition can indicate different positions:

101. He stood by the window.

102. The pupils come to school by the fields.

103. He walked by me without speaking.

A more careful analysis will also force us to make a distinction between the roles "location or movement in space" and "location or movement in time", for there are some verbs that have only temporal or only spatial roles. If we compare the following two sentences:

104. The delegate walked into the auditorium.

105. The meeting lasted into the morning.

we recognize that the verb "walk" occurs only with movement in space. But the fact that we can say both:

106a. John drove into the gas station.

106b. John drove into the night.

does not mean that the verb "drive" can be used with either "movement-in-time" roles or "movement-in-space" roles. Rather, it occurs with "movement in space" and it occurs metaphorically with a role which we may call "duration in time", which is normally introduced by the preposition for or into (Langendoen, 1970: 87).

Another example of overlapping is that we generally measure time duration either in temporal or spatial units. If one drives at a constant speed of 60 miles per hour, one can say:

107a. I drove for three hours.

107b. I drove for 180 miles.

Here, the expressions "three hours" and "180 miles" both denote duration in time.

3.7. Single-word Verbs and Multi-word Verbs

Verbs, since they sometimes establish close relationships with

prepositions, should enter into our discussion. Thomas (1965: 125) claims that "some school grammars ignore the fact that English has verbs which consist of two or more words". In fact, most modern grammars recognize the fact that some English verbs make a cohesive relationship with their prepositions, functioning as a unit, whereas others do not. Verbs, therefore, have to be divided into single-word verbs and multi-word verbs which, according to the prepositions they have, fall into three classes: Prepositional verbs, phrasal verbs and phrasal prepositional verbs (See Quirk et al, 1973: 811; Vestegaard, 1977: 103). Consider the following examples:

- 108. Nelson called the man. (single-word verb)
- 109. Nelson called on the man . (prepositional verb)
- 110. Nelson called up the man. (phrasal verb)
- 111. Nelson put up with the man. (phrasal prepositional verb)

The above constructions, consisting of verbs plus particles, should be distinguished from superficially similar constructions, consisting of verbs followed by PP's as in:

- 112. Nelson called after lunch.
- 113. Nelson called from the office.

Prepositional and phrasal verbs can be distinguished from verbs plus PP's by the following criteria:

a. Prepositional and phrasal verbs accept passivization whereas the other set consisting of verbs plus PP's do not. Compare the following examples:

- 114. The man was called on.
- 115. The man was called up.
- 116. The man was put up with.
- 117. *Lunch was called after.

118. *The office was called from.

b. The prepositional and phrasal verbs form questions with "who(m)" for personal and "what" for non-personal objects, as in:

119. Who(m) did Nelson call up?

120. What did Nelson look for?

Constructions of the second set function as adverbials, and have question forms with "where", "when", "how", etc.

121. When did Nelson call?

122. Where did Nelson call from?

c. Particles of the phrasal (though not the prepositional) verbs can be moved around to the other side of the object, giving the sentence below:

123. Nelson called the man up.

On the other hand, prepositions cannot be moved around to the other side of the NPs which follow them. If this permutation is carried out, the following ungrammatical strings result:

124. * Nelson called lunch after.

125. * Nelson called the office from.

4. Prepositions may be shifted (or preposed) to the front of sentences when questions are asked. Thus, the sentence below is grammatical:

126. After what did Nelson call?

Particles, on the other hand, may not be preposed in a question, and if they are preposed, an ungrammatical string results:

127. * Up who(m) did Nelson call ?

The semantic unity of phrasal and prepositional verbs can be demonstrated by the fact that each unity can be replaced by a single-word verb; for instance, "visit" for "call on" and "telephone" for

"call up". Besides, phrasal and prepositional verbs have composite meanings which differ from the sums of the meanings of their parts.

There are, however, certain syntactic and phonological criteria that can distinguish prepositional verbs from phrasal verbs. Phonologically, the particle in phrasal verbs is stressed whereas in a prepositional verb, it is unstressed, e.g.

1128 He called 'up the man.

129. He 'called on the man. (See, Quirk et al, 1973: 815)

A syntactic difference between the two is that the particle of a phrasal verb, unlike that of a prepositional verb, can stand either before or after a noun, but only after personal pronouns, e.g.

call up the man / call the man up / call him up

3.8. Overlapping Between Prepositions and other Grammatical Categories.

Certain prepositions in English have semantic and syntactic properties resembling those of other grammatical categories like adverbs, verbs, adjectives, and participles. The purpose of the following subsections is to show how prepositions can be differentiated from the grammatical categories above.

3.8.1. Prepositions and Adverbs

It has been pointed out by many grammarians that prepositions were originally adverbs modifying verbs. Curme (1931: 561) argues that such adverbs gradually detached themselves from the verbs and came to belong to nouns, thus functioning as prepositions which bring a noun (or a noun equivalent) into relation with some other word in the sentence. To illustrate this, the following example is presented:

130. John plays in the garden.

In this sentence, in brings the noun "garden" into relation with the verb "play" (see P.10). Originally in, Curme suggests, was an adverb modifying the verb "play". Little by little in came into a closer relation with "garden" than with the verb and for this reason developed into a preposition. Roberts (1954: 226) also states that "most prepositions are adverbs in origin. They became prepositions upon being used before nouns." Indeed, the correspondence between adverbs and prepositions is so close that many traditional grammarians have refused to recognize them as two different parts of speech. Consequently, such a close relationship brings about the difficulty of distinguishing between the two. Consider the following sentence,

131. He shot at the lion.

It is difficult at first sight to decide whether the word group "at the lion" is a PP modifying the verb "shot" or the word "lion" is an object of the verb-adverb combination "shot at". This may be clarified (see P.33) when the sentence is transformed into the passive, as shown below:

132. The lion was shot at.

Then at is not a preposition because it adheres to the verb rather than to the noun in both the active and passive forms.

Strang (1962: 114) has noted the close relationship between adverbs and prepositions and states that "nearly all one-word prepositions can also be adverbs, and in that case all we are distinguishing is that the same forms used without object are adverbs, with object are prepositions."

Jespersen (1924: 88) has pointed out that "the relationship between prepositions and adverbs is parallel to that between

transitive and intransitive verbs". He concludes that sometimes words such as on, in, over, etc. are complete in themselves and sometimes they need to be followed by a complement or object as shown below:

133a. Put your cap on your head.

133b. Put your cap on.

134a. He was in the house.

134b. He was in.

135a. John went over the hill.

135b. John went over.

From the above examples, we can say that some prepositions can have a deletable object, i.e. they can be used as adverbs modifying verbs and as prepositions governing nouns. This means that the only difference between the two is that prepositions take objects whereas adverbs do not. However, not all prepositions can be used as adverbs: e.g. at, from, of and with cannot. On the other hand, adverbs such as "back" and "forth" are only used as adverbs (see Adams, 1973: 33).

In relation to the fact stated above, one must be careful not to consider the retained preposition after a verb in the passive voice as an adverb. The object of a preposition in an active voice sentence becomes the subject of the verb when it is transformed into the passive, and the preposition is retained without an object. The following two sentences clarify this point:

136a. You can rely on Tom.

136b. Tom can be relied on.

One should also note that a preposition which occurs at the end of a sentence should not be looked upon as an adverb because a preposition as we have seen (PP. 23-28) can occupy end-position as well as front-position. Compare the following two sentences:

137a. He lived in this house.

137b. This is the house he lived in.

The word in in the two examples above is a preposition of place relation though it comes at the end of the second one.

In the deep structure, it might be suggested, sentence (137b) is composed of the following two sentences:

138. He lived in the house.

139. This is the house.

By conjoining the two sentences, we either get the following formal sentence:

140. This is the house in which he lived.

or the colloquial one in (137b).

Huddleston (1984) seems not to agree with the distinction, followed by most grammarians, between prepositions and adverbs, i.e. a preposition has an object while an adverb does not. To illustrate his point, he presents the following two examples:

141a. He came across the bridge.

141b. He came across.

To Huddleston, the word across in the two examples above is a preposition but one occurs with a complement whereas no complement follows the other (Huddleston, 1984: 347).

The present writer, advocating Huddleston's opinion, considers the word across in the two examples above a preposition of place relation. In sentence (132b), the word across, though it behaves superficially as an adverb, is semantically and syntactically a preposition. The sentence was originally "He came across something" but a transformational rule was applied to that sentence to delete optionally the complement for economy. The omission of the complement

does not affect the sentence in any way since it is still there, i.e. implicit in the mind of the speaker and the hearer.

Christophersen (1969) accounts for the distinction between prepositions and adverbs phonologically. He argues that, since end-position prepositions and adverbs cannot be distinguished by distinctive endings, one might think that they could get mixed up in this position. But, he continues, this is not true since there is usually a phonological difference between the two. Prepositions in this position tend to be weakly stressed, whereas adverbs in the same position have heavy stress (see P. 31). To confirm this fact, he presents the following examples:

142. Is 'that the 'boat they 'went in? (Prep)

143. They went 'in. (Adv)

144. 'What did you 'come about? (Prep)

145. 'How did it come 'about? (Adv)

(Christopherson, 1969: 80)

3.8.2. Prepositions and Verbs

Though prepositions in English are clearly distinguished from central, i.e. tensed, verbs, some of them have semantic and syntactic properties resembling those of verbs. A few prepositions can be used directly as tensed verbs in a different but related meaning. The following two examples, cited by Langendoen, (1970: 99) clearly illustrate this fact:

146. John downed his drink in one gulp.

147. The bank upped its interest rate on savings accounts.

There are also certain instances in which a construction consisting of the verb "be" plus a preposition can be replaced by a

single-item verb without a basic change in meaning, e.g.

148a. The poem is about the war.

148b. The poem concerns the war.

Sometimes, such a paraphrase demands a change in what becomes subject and object, e.g.

149a. There is a car in the garage.

149b. The garage contains a car.

Becker and Arms (1969: 7-9) believe that prepositions are introduced in the deep structure as features of verbs. To confirm their argument, they present the following linguistic areas in which prepositions function as verbs:

a. In imperatives, prepositions/adverbs frequently function syntactically as verbs, e.g.

150. Out, out, damned spot!

151. Up, up and away!

This phenomenon, however, is not limited to imperatives, as previously shown in (146 and 147).

b. Since prepositions have traditionally been thought of as having objects, they are quite similar to verbs classified as transitive and intransitive. Like motion verbs, motion prepositions may take optional objects as in:

152. Francis came across (the bridge).

Furthermore, some prepositions, like transitive verbs only, have to be followed by their objects obligatorily because the deletion of their objects leads to ungrammaticalness, as shown by the following examples:

153a. John is at the door.

153b. * John is at.

154a. He went with Mary.

154b. * He went with.

c. Motional-locational prepositions share with verbs the features "momentary" and "continuative". Normally, motion prepositions, as stated by Fillmore (1969: 71), are momentary and hence do not take complements which describe a time span, e.g.

155. He was over the hill for three days.

Bennet (1975: 4) finds that the componential analysis of meaning provides a direct method of expressing semantically the relationship between different vocabulary items. To confirm this fact, he states that the meaning of certain verbs such as "contain" and "enter" is part of the meaning of the prepositions in and into. To clarify this, the following examples are presented:

156a. My money is in that box.

156b. This box contains my money.

157a. They went into the building.

157b. They entered the building.

Here, the sequence with a verb, the meaning of which is part of the preposition which follows, is expressed by a single word whose meaning is closely related to that of the preposition, i.e. the intransitive verb in sentences (156a) and (157a) has been converted into a transitive and the prepositional complement into the direct object of the verb.

3.8.3. Prepositions and Adjectives

In English, though there are clear differences between prepositions and adjectives, there are still certain words which are used in some cases as prepositions and as adjectives in others.

Consider the following examples:

158a. He placed it above the book. (Prep)

158b. The above book mentions it. (Adj)

159a. He was inside the house. (Prep)

159b. It is an inside job. (Adj)

Prepositions and adjectives can easily be distinguished syntactically: the word is a preposition if it takes an object; it is an adjective if it modifies a noun and appears in the attributive position, where an ordinary adjective might be substituted for it.

Huddleston (1984: 347) goes further when he states that it is not simply a question of certain words having prepositional properties in some cases and adjectival ones in others, but that there are uses where such words exhibit both kinds of property at once, as in:

160a. That is the one which he had buried nearest the fence.

or

160b. That is the one which he had buried nearest to the fence.

Here, the word "nearest" can take a to phrase complement instead of a noun phrase complement.

Prepositional and adjectival phrases can both function as complement in clause structure, more specifically as complement to a verb like "be". Consider the following examples:

161. He was on the roof. (PP)

162. He was in a bad temper. (PP)

163. He was very angry. (AP)

Huddleston (1984: 347) argues that the adjunct position in clause structure is more characteristic of PPs but we do find some constructions where an adjectival phrase might be regarded as having this function, e.g.

164. Furious at his own incompetence, Ed abandoned the project.

3.8.4. Prepositions and Participles

There are many words in English which sometimes function as participles and sometimes as prepositions. Consider the following examples:

165a. Considering John's youth, it was a very creditable performance. (Prep)

165b. The committee considering John's application is expected to report favourably. (Participle).

166a. There were twelve people present including the guards. (Prep)

166b. Send me a report, including this month's losses.

(Participle or Prep)

Roberts (1954: 229) states that "many participles such as excepting, owing to, pending, etc. have lost their verbal force and now function as prepositions."

3.9. Omission of Prepositions

Prepositions, like other parts of speech, may be omitted in certain linguistic contexts. Sometimes, the omission is useful as it shortens the sentence and makes meaning easier to grasp and sometimes it leads to vagueness and ambiguity. Linguistic contexts in which prepositions may be omitted are numerous. The following are the most common:

a. In adjuncts of place and time, the preposition at is often omitted, e.g.

167. The soldier takes his place some distance from the officer.

168. John was awake about 11-30.

b. A preposition is omitted when intransitive verbs are converted into transitive, through the absorption of the preposition with which they are construed, as in:

169a. They entered into the house.

169b. They entered the house.

c. A nominal often loses its preposition when it becomes the subject of a verb, as shown below:

170a. The death of the dog occurred.

170b. The dog died.

Fillmore (1969: 368) states that "whenever the object of a preposition is made subject, it loses its preposition." The example below shows this:

171a. Bees swarm in the garden.

171b. The garden swarms with bees.

However, semantically speaking, the above two sentences are different. Sentence (171a) means that there are some bees in the garden, i.e. bees can be located somewhere in the garden, while sentence (171b) indicates that the garden has been invaded by bees.

d. Prepositions, Curme (1931: 566) argues, are often omitted in colloquial speech in set expressions since they are either lightly stressed and of little importance to the thought (172) or one tends to economize in speech (173):

172. He must never treat you (in) that way again.

173. This is the table. You can write.

In such expressions the element as a whole is felt to be an adverb so that the preposition really has no function any more and drops out.

e. A preposition is obligatorily deleted when the noun "home" is used to modify a verb signifying "motion to". In other words, the

preposition to is not employed with the noun "home". Thus, it is not correct, for example, to say

174.* They went/came to home.

but

175. They went/ came home.

f. Another linguistic context where preposition-deletion occurs is in the Wh-interrogative, e.g.

176. Where is the book?

but never

177. Where is the book on?

In such a context, the preposition is obligatorily deleted because the meaning of the preposition is subsumed in the meaning of "where".

In contrast to Wh-interrogative, prepositions cannot be deleted from Yes/No questions, as shown below:

178. Is the book on the table?

As previously mentioned (P.39), the deletion of a preposition sometimes brings about ambiguity and unclearness. Consider the following two examples:

179a. The police went and came out of the house.

179b. The police went into the house and came out.

One can notice that the second example is clearer than the first one since it indicates that the police left the same house they had entered while the first example may suggest that the police did not enter the same house which they left.

Ambiguity often results when a preposition is deleted after a conjunction. Compare the following two examples:

180a. I put my money in the bag and the purse.

180b. I put my money in the bag and in the purse.

The first sentence is rather vague because it can mean that the money and the purse are put into the bag.

This chapter displays a general view of how the English prepositional system functions in the English language. It is hoped that this survey, though not exhaustive, can be of considerable benefit to the reader of this work by giving him a rough idea of this linguistic area.

Chapter Four

Prepositions of Place Relation

4.1. Introduction

Linguists basically use two different approaches to the description of English prepositions, namely, the primary approach, i.e. the dictionary approach, and the semantic approach. The semantic approach deals with English prepositions in terms of their general meaning as well as with the semantic features according to which they are classified into related groups. (See Becker & Arms, 1969; Leech, 1971; Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973; Bennet, 1975). This approach will be dealt with at a later stage when the writer deals with pedagogical implications, suggesting the best way to present English prepositions of place relation to Arab learners of English. The motive behind this order of presentation is the belief that it is preferable to let non-native speakers of English be acquainted with all the senses each preposition has, i.e. the primary approach, before advancing to the semantic approach.

Bennett (1975) draws a clear distinction between the two approaches and the purpose underlying each of them. He clarifies the position by saying that the primary approach, followed by most grammarians as well as by large dictionaries, postulates as many senses as possible of each preposition, since it is intended primarily for the use of non-native speakers of English (see, for example, Miller, 1946; Lindkvist, 1950; Wood, 1967; Swan, 1980; Bruton, 1985; Hall, 1986). The semantic approach, on the other hand, finds that it is unnecessary and undesirable to do this, since, as Bennett (1975: 5) states, it intends "to present a rather more formalized account of the

meaning of English prepositions within the frame work of an explicit theory of the structure of language."

4.2. Senses of Prepositions

This section introduces the primary approach method of presentation of English prepositions, but following rather a different procedure from the usual one when analysing the senses conveyed by each preposition. These senses will be classified into three subcategories: the first category (A), the writer's main concern, includes the purely spatial senses of each preposition under study; the second one (B) deals with all its other senses including metaphorical ones; and in the third (C), a selection of the preposition's common idiomatic uses, e.g. occurrence in fixed collocations or phrasal verbs, which are often listed in dictionaries in the entries for prepositions only, will be introduced.

Overlapping and contrasts among English prepositions will be introduced later as a separate section.

The following list, arranged alphabetically, is, to the best of the writer's knowledge and belief, a comprehensive listing of the English prepositions of place relation:

- | | | | |
|--------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|
| 1. aboard | 2. about | 3. above | 4. across |
| 5. after | 6. against | 7. ahead of | 8. along |
| 9. alongside | 10. amid(st) | 11. among(st) | 12. (a)round |
| 13. astride | 14. at | 15. away from | 16. before |
| 17. behind | 18. below | 19. beneath | 20. beside |
| 21. between | 22. beyond | 23. by | 24. down |
| 25. facing | 26. for | 27. from | 28. in |

29. in front of	30. inside	31. into	32. near(to)
33. next(to)	34. of	35. off	36. on
37. onto	38. opposite(to)	39. out of	40. outside(of)
41. over	42. past	43. through	44. throughout
45. to	46. toward(s)	47. under	48. underneath
49. up	50. upon	51. via	52. within

What follows is a detailed listing of the senses of each preposition, with examples drawn from a variety of grammar books such as Wood (1967); Heaton (1965); Quirk and Greenbaum (1973); Bennett (1975); Swan (1980); Hall (1986); and dictionaries like , The Advanced Learner's Dictionary (1961), The Concise English Dictionary (1968), The Collins Cobuild Dictionary (1987) and the writer himself.

The list does not follow any one source exactly, and indeed the sense divisions can vary quite considerably from source to source. However, the writer has gone through any available literature to trace almost all the senses a preposition can denote.

The main purpose of the listing of all senses is twofold. First, it gives the reader a general view of the senses denoted by each preposition under study. Second, all these senses will be contrasted with those denoted by Arabic prepositions in order to see the similarities and differences.

4.2.1. List of Prepositions

4.2.1.1. Aboard

A) Spatial senses: this preposition is commonly used to denote the meaning in/into, on/onto (a ship, a plane, and sometimes a train

or a bus), e.g.

1. They went aboard the ship.

B) Other senses: none is recorded.

C) Idiomatic uses: none is recorded.

4.2.1.2. About

A) Spatial senses

a. at various places in a given area

2. The papers were scattered about the floor.

b. (a)round; encircling

3. She has a gold chain about her neck.

c. in the vicinity of or (a)round

4. She is a woman who likes to have children about her.

d. from one place to another within a specific area

5. The nature of his work enables him to get about the world.

e. somewhere within a given area or place

6. She doesn't appear to be about the house.

f. near to

7. I have no money about me.

B) Other senses

a. near(ly); approximately in time

8. He came about 7 o'clock in the morning.

b. on the point of; in the act of

9. She was about to speak when I stopped her.

c. concerning; on the subject of

10. He talked about the weather.

d. performing; engaged in

11. She doesn't like to be interrupted when she is about an

important piece of work.

e. pertaining to as a part of a person's character or appearance

12. There was something about him that I did not like.

C) Idiomatic uses

a. go about: start to do

13. He went about the job half-heartedly.

b. to beat about the bush: not to come straight to the point

14. I wish you would tell me what you want and not beat about the bush.

c. what about: to make a suggestion

15. What about having a game of tennis?

4.2.1.3. Above

A) Spatial senses: the preposition above has only the spatial sense, higher than; over

16. The aeroplane was above the clouds.

B) Other senses

a. higher than in status, ability, etc.

17. We should always show respect to those above us.

b. higher than in number, amount, or quality

18. Above two hundred people attended the meeting.

c. superior to

19. All these men are honest and above bribery.

d. beyond the reach of

20. You can't expect to succeed if you attempt tasks above your ability.

C) Idiomatic uses

a. above one's head: beyond one's power of comprehension

21. The lecture was above the heads of most of the audience.

b. above all: of more importance than anything else

22. Above all, you should see a doctor.

c. get above oneself: to imagine oneself to be more important than one actually is

23. I don't know why he should get so much above himself.

d. over and above: in addition to

24. He gets a number of perks, over and above his salary.

e. above board: correct or official

25. That house deal was all above board.

4.2.1.4. Across

A) Spatial senses

a. from one side to another

26. He ran across the street.

b. on the other side from here

27. There are many houses across the river.

c. stretching from one side to another.

28. They built another bridge across the river.

d. intersecting

29. AB goes across CD at E.

B) Other senses: no other senses are recorded for this preposition.

C) Idiomatic uses

a. come across: find or meet unexpectedly

30. I came across a very interesting book in the library.

b. across board: affect everything or everybody

31. We are aiming for 20% reduction across the board.

4.2.1.5. After

A) Spatial senses

a. behind

32. Shut the door after you when you go out.

b. following

33. We have to run after the bus.

B) Other senses

a. later than

34. We will discuss the matter after dinner.

b. at the end of a specified segment

35. He arrived after three weeks.

c. following

36. They drove mile after mile through open moorland.

Similarly, "day after day", "week after week", etc.

d. resembling; in imitation of

37. This is a portrait after Gainsborough.

e. considering

38. You shouldn't complain after all you have been given.

C) Idiomatic uses

a. look after: take care of

39. Who will look after the children?

b. be after: look for or try to get or do

40. What are you after?

c. be named (called) after: be given the name of

41. He was named John after his father.

d. take after: be like

42. The boy takes after his father.

e. ask after: concerning

43. Mrs Jackson asked after you and the children.

f. after one's own heart: admire

44. He is a man after my own heart.

4.2.1.6. Against

A) Spatial senses

a. in contact with

45. Don't lean against the wall.

b. in sudden contact with, as a result of a collision

46. She struck her head against the wall.

c. in the opposite direction to

47. Can you row a boat against the current?

B) Other senses

a. in opposition to

48. I am against that proposal.

b. in anticipation; in preparation for

49. He saved money against a rainy day.

C) Idiomatic uses

a. to run (up) against somebody: to meet accidentally

50. She ran up against him at the theatre.

b. against the grain: contrary to inclination

51. It goes against the grain with me to do that.

4.2.1.7. Ahead of: Generally, ahead is used as an adjective or adverb and it is rarely used as a preposition. However, in certain contexts, it is followed by of and functions as a preposition to convey the meaning in front of spatially (52) and temporally (53):

52. He was running ahead of the others.

53. Any further consultation with the guerrillas ahead of Thursday puts the plan into jeopardy.

C) Idiomatic uses: no idiomatic uses are recorded.

4.2.1.8. Along

A) Spatial senses

a. from end to end

54. There are some tall trees along the road to the village.

To make it clear that the whole length is intended, along may be preceded by the adverb "all", e.g.

55. There were muddyfoot marks all along the corridor.

b. moving on a flat surface

56. She was pulling a bundle along the ice.

B) Other senses: no other senses are related to this preposition.

C) Idiomatic uses

a. along with: in the company of

57. A party of school children arrived, along with their teacher.

b. along the way: happening during the course of a particular event or process

58. There were, of course, some problems along the way.

c. get along with: having a friendly relationship

59. I used to get along well with my boss.

d. go along with: accept and obey

60. You agreed to go along with the decision.

4.2.1.9. Alongside: this preposition is a combination of the ideas expressed by "along" and "side".

A) Spatial senses: it is used to denote the spatial sense, with the length included, e.g.

61. The vessel anchored alongside the quay.

B) Other senses: this preposition is used to convey the meaning "in comparison with", as in:

62. His works are second-rate productions alongside those of some of his contemporaries.

C) Idiomatic uses: no idiomatic uses are recorded.

4.2.1.10. Amid(st): amid and amid(st) are used to convey the same meaning. Wood (1967: 9) claims that in spoken English the form with "st" is more frequent than the other. This preposition, however, is found more in literature than in daily speech. The present writer believes that this is the main reason that motivates most grammarians, especially the recent ones, to neglect it.

A) Spatial senses: the only spatial meaning that is conveyed by this preposition is: "in the middle of"; "surrounded by", e.g.

63. There was a grave amid(st) the grass.

B) Other senses: sometimes, this preposition is used temporally to express the meaning "at the same time", e.g.

64. The debate took place amid(st) a mood of growing political hysteria.

C) Idiomatic uses: no idiomatic uses are recorded.

4.2.1.11. Among(st): the two forms among and amongst are two variants of the same word, and both have the same meaning. Wood (1967: 9) claims "the probable deciding factors are euphony and the rhythm of the sentence."

A) Spatial senses: this preposition has only one spatial sense, namely: surrounded by ; in the midst of

65. There was a village among(st) the hills.

B) Other senses

a. the idea of distribution over all the members of a specified group, e.g.

66. The food was distributed among(st) the poor.

b. the idea of co-operation or aggregation

67. Among(st) them, they collected over a hundred pounds.

c. the meaning "within a number or a group of things specified"

68. I found the letter among(st) some papers that were on the desk.

d. in the number/class of .

69. He is ranked among(st) our greatest writers.

Sometimes, the preposition among(st) is preceded by in, especially, where material things are concerned, e.g.

70. I found the letter in among(st) some papers that were on his table.

C) Idiomatic uses: none is recorded.

4.2.1.12. (A) round: in American English (a)round is more common than round, and the shorter form is sometimes written with an initial apostrophe ('round). In British English, on the other hand, round is far more common. (Bennett, 1975: 88). It seems that grammarians do not agree about whether these forms should be used in different contexts. Wood (1967: 72) argues that there is a great deal of confusion between the use of the two words and the best solution is to restrict the use of (a)round to convey the idea of vicinity and in all other cases to

use round. The Collins Cobuild Dictionary (1987: 67) states "Around is an alternative form of round when it is used as a preposition".

The writer believes that there is no semantic difference between the two prepositions and that they are interchangeable in all contexts (See all the examples below). Moreover, in spoken language, they are hardly distinguishable. Thus, it is better to list the forms as (a)round.

A) Spatial senses

a. encircling

71. They sat (a)round this table.

b. completely or partly covering

72. She was wearing a scarf (a)round her neck.

c. placed in various positions on all sides of; in the vicinity of

73. A crowd of people gathered (a)round the speaker.

d. situated in a curve or at an angle

74. The post office is just (a)round the corner.

e. from place to place within a given area

75. We wandered (a)round the city looking for him.

f. all over the place/area that is mentioned

76. He has five shops scattered (a)round the city.

g. movement (on the outside) in the shape of a circle

The earth moves (a)round the sun.

B) Other senses

a. giving support to

77. The reformer soon gathered a band of followers (a)round him.

b. about

78. His story is built (a)round two central characters.

C) Idiomatic uses: this preposition is preceded by the verb

"get" to denote the following two meanings:

a. avoid

79. You shouldn't try to get (a)round the law.

b. influence in one's favour

80. His wife knows how to get (a)round him.

4.2.1.13. Astride: strictly, astride is an adverb but in some phrases it is used as a preposition to express a position with one leg on one side of something, and one on the other, as in "to sit astride a horse, a chair", etc. e.g.

81. Noor sat astride a large horse.

4.2.1.14. At

A) Spatial senses

a. the place where something happens or is situated

82. We met at the station.

b. throwing towards with the intention of hitting

83. He threw a stone at the window.

c. the place where someone arrives

84. He usually arrives late at his office.

B) Other senses

a. a point in time

85. They came at half past seven.

b. a state or condition

86. I never feel at ease in his company.

c. the meaning "engaged in"

87. She loved to watch children at play.

e. manner

88. He vaulted over the fence at a single leap.

f. reason

89. At the suggestion of our parents, we stayed at home.

g. the condition on which something is done

90. Cars are parked at their owners' risk.

h. the rate either of movement or of the charge made for goods or services

91. Eggs are sold at fifty pence a dozen.

i. the occasion that leads to something taking place

92. At the mention of money, the stranger became attentive.

j. motion towards or the object of at as the recipient of some activity

93. He kicked violently at the door.

k. the field in which capabilities or attainments lie

94. The boy is clever at mathematics.

C) Idiomatic uses

a. at that: accepting it without any more talking or arguing

95. Let it go at that.

b. at close quarters: very near

96. The armies fought at close quarters.

c. at peace: dead

97. He is now at peace.

d. at a pinch: as a matter of absolute necessity

98. I could perhaps do it at a pinch.

4.2.1.15. Away from: this is a compound preposition consisting of the adverb "away" and the preposition from. It indicates the meaning of both words, i.e. from is reinforced by "away", which

stresses the idea of separation, e.g.

99. She ran away from home.

B) Other senses: no other senses are related to this preposition.

C) Idiomatic uses: none is recorded.

4.2.1.16. Before

A) Spatial senses: this preposition has only one spatial sense, namely, in front of, e.g.

100. The tea had been set before us.

B) Other senses

a. earlier than

101. We got up before sunrise.

b. immediately preceding

102. They travelled abroad the day before yesterday.

c. preparatory to

103. Before crossing the road, you should look both ways.

d. occupying a superior place in order of precedence as in (104a) or importance as in (104b)

104a. A general comes before a colonel.

104b. Work should come before pleasure.

C. Idiomatic uses: the preposition before is used idiomatically in expressions like "right before my eyes" and "before my very eyes" meaning "openly", e.g.

105. He did it before my very eyes.

4.2.1.17. Behind

A) Spatial senses

a. at the back of; at the rear of

106. There is a garden behind the house.

b. at the back of and hidden or screened by

107. There is someone behind the curtain.

B) Other senses

a. later than

108. He arrived at the office two hours behind me.

b. in the past and not likely to occur again

109. All our difficulties are now behind us.

c. remaining after one's departure

110. Someone has left his umbrella behind him.

d. less advanced in attainment

111. She is rather behind the rest of her class in algebra.

e. underlying

112. This is the real reason behind his departure.

f. supporting

113. I knew that my friends were behind me in the matter.

g. develop or create

114. The man behind the modernizing of the station was Mr Brown.

C) Idiomatic uses

a. behind one's back/behind the scenes: secretly; not in public

115. It has been carried out behind your back/behind the scenes.

b. behind time, schedule, etc.: late

116. He was five minutes behind time.

c. behind the times: old-fashioned; out of date

117. Most of the people present are behind the times.

4.2.1.18. Below

A) Spatial senses

a. lower in position than

118. He had a bruise just below his left eye.

b. at a position on the other side of

119. Their school is about 100 yards below the library.

B) Other senses

a. at a lower level in value or status

120. In a hospital, a nurse comes below a sister, and a sister comes below a matron.

b. lower on a scale

121. Water changes into ice when the temperature is below 32F.

C) Idiomatic uses

a. below the mark: of poor quality

122. His behaviour yesterday was below the mark.

b. hit below the belt: make an unfair attack

123. He was hit below the belt.

4.2.1.19. Beneath

A) Spatial senses

a. under

124. They sheltered beneath their umbrellas.

b. at the foot of

125. There is a rose bush beneath the window.

c. lower in position than

126. He was hit beneath the knee.

B) Other senses

a. inferior to

127. As a scholar, he is far beneath his brother.

b. as a result of

128. He staggered beneath the blow.

c. unworthy of

129. You should consider it beneath you to stoop to such conduct as that.

C. Idiomatic uses: this preposition has only the following idiomatic use

beneath contempt; too ridiculous or unimportant to deserve contempt

130. The poor were beneath her contempt.

4.2.1.20. Beside

A) Spatial senses: this preposition has only one spatial sense, namely, at or by the side of, e.g.

131. There was an old mill beside the stream.

B) Other senses

a. compared with

132. My work is poor beside yours.

b. indicating co-operation

133. The nation will not regard them as respectable allies beside whom American troops should fight.

C) Idiomatic uses

a. beside the point: irrelevant to the matter under discussion

134. What you say may be true, but it is beside the point.

b. beside oneself: wildly excited; out of one's senses

135. She was quite beside herself with enthusiasm.

4.2.1.21. Between

A) Spatial senses

a. having one of two things on either side

136. The road between the two valleys was blocked by the snow.

b. within the distance separating two places

137. There are many stations between London and Glasgow.

B) Other senses

a. within the time separating two points of time

138. The burglary took place between 9.30 and 10.30 p.m.

b. to express this idea with regard to amounts, distances, sums of money, etc.

139. The repairs are likely to cost between fifty and sixty pounds.

c. to suggest intervention, with the idea of separation

140. A distracted woman threw herself between the two combatants.

d. to express the idea of distribution

141. They shared the money between them.

e. to suggest a reciprocal or mutual relationship

142. A quarrel arose between the two brothers.

f. to suggest co-operation or combined effort

143. They found that they hadn't five pounds between them.

C) Idiomatic uses

a. between times: during intervals

144. They promised to see each other between times.

b. between two fires: attacked on both sides

145. The troops were between two fires.

4.2.1.22. Beyond

A) **Spatial senses:** the only spatial sense that this preposition indicates is: past or on the further side of, e.g.

146. Don't go beyond that mountain.

B) **Other senses**

a. farther than one's power, capabilities, reach, etc.

147. Why he did it is beyond my comprehension.

b. above or out of the reach of

148. His conduct has been beyond criticism.

c. more than

149. There weren't beyond twenty people present.

d. greater than

150. She has intelligence beyond the ordinary.

C) **Idiomatic uses**

a. beyond control: uncontrollable

151. All the boys have become beyond control.

b. beyond hope: hopeless

152. It is beyond hope now.

c. beyond a joke: too serious to be amusing

153. The whole thing is getting beyond a joke.

d. live beyond one's income: spend more than one receives

154. He used to live beyond his income.

4.2.1.23. ByA) **Spatial senses**

a. near to or at the side of

155. I like to sit by the fire.

b. past

156. The man has just gone by the window..

c. by way of; via

157. They came by the fields.

B) Other senses: this preposition is used in a number of ways, some of which are difficult to define; however, the following are its chief uses:

a. to express the idea "not later than"

158. We have to be home by ten o'clock.

b. to express the idea of "during"

159. They decided to travel by night/by day.

c. to denote an instrument

160. He was killed by a knife.

As regards means of travel, by is used when the reference is to the general means, e.g.

161. We shall go by train/by bus/by helicopter.

d. through the means of (162a) or in the manner or method of (162b)

162a. Our houses are lighted by electricity.

162b. Please let me know by writing.

e. with the meaning "to the extent of"

163. They lost the match by one goal.

f. to name something or somebody on whose name an oath is sworn

164. He often swears by Almighty God.

g. to express dimension

165. The carpet is three yards by four.

h. to denote a series or a succession, consisting of so many, or

so much, at a time as in: day by day, step by step, drop by drop, etc., e.g.

166. Day by day, he applied himself to the task until it was finished.

i. to denote amounts, quantities, or numbers in which things are sold or bought

167. Milk is sold by the pint, butter by the pound and eggs by the dozen.

j. with the meaning "on the basis of"

168. It is unwise to judge by appearance.

k. to express the meaning "consequent on"

169. The meeting will be held in the school hall, by permission of the headteacher.

C) Idiomatic uses

a. by oneself: without help

170. Did you do that by yourself?

b. by far: very much

171. This one is better by far.

4.2.1.24. Down

A) Spatial senses

a. movement from a higher to a lower level

172. They ran down the hill.

b. at or in a lower part

173. He lived down that hill.

c. away from where one is at the time of speaking

174. Don't run down the street.

B) Other senses: there are no other senses related to this

preposition except when it is used to denote time, meaning from a further point of time to a nearer point, as in, "down the ages", "down the years", and "down the centuries", e.g.

175. There has been a chapel here down all the years my family has lived in this house.

C) Idiomatic uses: none is recorded.

4.2.1.25. Facing

A) Spatial sense: as a preposition of place relation, facing is rarely used and if it is used, it denotes the idea of opposite or "lying towards", e.g.

176. He bought a house facing the theatre.

B) Other senses: the only other sense that this preposition denotes is "meeting", e.g.

177. I heard about the many problems facing them.

C) Idiomatic uses: none is recorded.

4.2.1.26. For

A) Spatial senses: the only spatial sense that for conveys is "destination", e.g.

178. Passengers for Glasgow change at Crewe.

B) Other senses: the preposition for is used in many different ways; however, the following are the chief senses denoted by this preposition

a. duration of time

179. We haven't seen him for four weeks.

b. a point of time

180. We have arranged the meeting for two o'clock.

c. on the occasion of

181. All the churches hold special services for Christmas.

d. the idea of benefit or advantage or the reverse

182. This medicine is good for her.

e. purpose, aim, intention

183. She went for a walk.

f. result

184. We have had all our troubles for nothing.

g. some kind of service rendered to a person, organization, cause,
etc.

185. They gave their lives for their country.

h. on behalf of

186. I can only give my opinion; I cannot speak for others.

i. in favour of

187. Are you for the motion, or against it?

j. in respect of

188. he is tall for a boy of eight.

k. in the capacity of

189. I shouldn't want a person like that for a neighbour.

l. the idea of exchange

190. I let him have my watch for his camera.

m. ratio or proportion

191. They have built one house for every two they demolished.

n. affirmation

192. The weather is cold enough for snow.

o. the meaning expressed by "it is", "this is", "that is", etc.

193. She has won the prize for the third time.

C) Idiomatic uses

a. for all: in spite of

194. For all his learning, he is rather stupid.

b. for granted: as being

195. You may take my permission for granted.

c. all for: very much in favour of

196. Shall we go then? Yes, I am all for it.

d. not for somebody: not appropriate or suitable

197. Peace and prayer are not for him in his present mood.

4.2.1.27. From

A) Spatial senses

a. a point or place of departure

198. The train leaves from there.

b. a source or a place of origin

199. Tea comes from India.

c. the place from which an activity starts or from which a movement is made

200. He jumped from that window.

d. the location to which something is attached

201. There is a nail projecting from the wall.

B) Other senses

a. the earlier of two dates or times which mark the beginning and the end of a period

202. The library is open from 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.

b. the material out of which something is made

203. Wine is made from grapes.

c. the lower figure of two extremes in statements of time, price,

distance, etc.

204. The prices of houses range from \$30000 to \$ 300000.

d. removal or subtraction

205. If you take two from six, four remains.

e. the grounds of a deduction

206. From what I know of him, I do not think he is a suitable person for the position.

f. the cause or motive for an occurrence

207. The two explorers died from exposure to the cold.

g. protection from danger, threat, menace, etc.

208. He saved a child from drowning.

h. difference or comparison

209. We could not distinguish one from the other.

i. the repetition of an action, movement, etc. (in the pattern from.....to, the same noun being used) as in "from place to place", "from time to time", etc.

210. The news passed from mouth to mouth.

C) Idiomatic uses: none is recorded.

4.2.1.28. In

A) Spatial senses

a. location

211. The horses are in the field.

b. entry or placing within a place or area

212. She put her money in her bag.

c. the idea of "holding", "fastened with", or "projecting from"

213. There was a nail in the wall.

B) Other senses

a. a period of time throughout the whole of which, or within which, something takes place

214. We should be able to complete the work in five days.

b. lapse of time by reference to a point at the end of a specified period

215. The train will be here in ten minutes.

c. external physical environment

216. They lost themselves in the fog.

d. external circumstances, or non-material conditions

217. He spent the last few years of his life in poverty.

e. bodily, physical or mental condition

218. She was in great distress.

f. a printed, written or oral context where something occurs or is to be found

219. I read it in the Times.

g. an activity which one is pursuing or by which one is occupied

220. His whole life was spent in helping others.

h. an attitude of mind

221. They seem to be in agreement on the matter.

i. a characteristic of one's conduct or of an activity one performs

222. Everyone seems in a hurry.

j. range, scope or limit

223. It is not in my power to do that.

k. membership of, or inclusion in, a group or organization or profession

224. My eldest brother is in the navy.

l. the meaning "in respect of" or "as regards"

225. They are quite reasonable in price.

m. referring to a person's character

226. He has no malice in him.

n. the material of which something is made

227. You can get these dresses in silk or nylon.

o. the idea "in the form of"

228. They stood in a queue.

p. division or grouping

229. The eggs were packed in dozens.

q. cause

230. I rejoiced in his success.

r. the meaning "by way of" .

231. He said nothing in reply to my question.

s. suggestion of conditions that have arisen or that may arise

232. In such a case, I can do nothing.

C. Idiomatic uses

a. in an effort to/in response to: expressing the cause or the purpose of something you have done

233. She had worn two layers of clothes in an effort to conceal her thinness.

b. in with: very friendly

234. This is a good excuse to worm her way in with people.

c. in on: participate

235. I think you should be in on this conversation.

d. in for: experience and cannot avoid

236. He is in for a shock, I am afraid.

e. in for it: being in trouble and likely to be punished

237. I am really in for it now.

4.2.1.29. In front of

A) Spatial senses

a. before (denoting position)

238. There was a dog lying in front of the fire.

b. before and covering or obscuring

239. There was a cloud in front of the moon.

c. ahead of

240. She ran quickly and got in front of the girls.

d. in the presence of

241. I could not tell you anything in front of Sam.

B) Other senses: this preposition is commonly used to denote only the nonspatial sense, "ahead of in time", e.g.

242. We have a difficult task in front of us.

C) Idiomatic uses: none is recorded.

4.2.1.30. Inside

A) Spatial senses

a. within

243. He was waiting for us inside the cinema.

b. on the inner side of or to a position at the inner side of

244. He put his name inside the cover of the book.

B) Other senses

a. within a specified period of time

245. I shall be back inside an hour.

b. within the limits of

246. Inside their party, there is a disagreement on important

matters of policy.

C) Idiomatic uses: none is recorded.

4.2.1.31. Into

A) Spatial senses: this preposition expresses the combined ideas of to/towards and in. The following are its only two spatial senses:

a. motion towards and then entry or insertion in

247. He followed her into the room.

b. against

248. They crashed into the wall.

B) Other senses

a. to indicate change from one form or state to another

249. Water may change into ice.

b. to denote the meaning "examine" or "discuss"

250. We cannot go into all the details now.

c. put something on

251. She changed into her best dress.

d. store

252. The money will be paid into a bank account.

e. the period of one's life

253. She must be into her thirties by now.

f. being interested in and liking very much

254. I am really into jazz these days.

g. start working in a particular career, field or profession

255. I 'd like to move into marketing.

C) Idiomatic uses

a. let somebody into a secret: make acquainted with

256. I will let you into a secret.

b. enter into: begin

257. The two companies have entered into an agreement.

c. get into: come to be in

258. She is always getting into trouble.

4.2.1.32. Near(to): originally, the word near, as it is often followed by to, is an adjective or adverb, but it does the work of a preposition after the omission of to. Swan (1980: 399) points out that to is often retained when we are not talking about physical or geographical closeness (259a) or when the comparative and superlative degrees are used (259b and 259c)

259a. I was very near to hitting him.

259b. I tried to get nearer to the fire.

259c. I like that picture which is nearest to the window.

The preposition near(to), however, is used to denote the following senses:

A) Spatial senses: the following is the only spatial sense that near(to) denotes: closeness, vicinity or proximity

260. They live in that house near(to) the park.

B) Other senses

a. closeness in time (261a) or age (261b)

261a. It must be getting near dinner-time.

261b. He must be getting near retiring age.

b. followed by an adjective, to express approach or proximity

262. Your answer is nowhere near right.

c. followed by a gerund, to express the idea of approach to a specified activity

263. We were near giving up the search, when we came upon a clue.

C) Idiomatic uses: none is recorded.

4.2.1.33. Next to

A) Spatial senses: the only spatial sense which this preposition denotes is "immediately beside"

264. He came and sat next to me.

B) Other senses: sometimes, this preposition is used to express the meaning "nearly", e.g.

265. It is next to impossible.

But, where order of precedence is concerned, next to usually means "immediately after", e.g.

266. The Lord Mayor comes first, and next to him the Town Clerk.

Wood (1967: 53) states that the preposition next to is sometimes used without the preposition to but this is now considered old-fashioned, e.g.

267. A stout man sat next him.

C) Idiomatic uses: none is recorded.

4.2.1.34. Of: this is probably the most frequently used of all the English prepositions, and because of that it is the one whose various uses and meanings are the most difficult to define and classify. However, the following are considered the chief uses:

A) Spatial senses

a. position or direction

268. We live 40 miles south of London.

b. after within to denote distance from a given point

269. We were within two miles of the station when our car broke

down.

B) Other senses

a. after within to denote time

270. He died within a few days of his ninetieth birthday.

b. regularity or a general practice

271. We usually go to church of a Sunday.

c. origin or source

272. He comes of a good stock.

d. deprivation or separation

273. He deprived her of her living.

e. possession

274. The roof of the house must be mended.

f. quality

275. She is a woman of determination.

g. the meaning "concerning"

276. He told me a story of his adventures.

h. cause

277. He died of wounds.

i. the material of which something is made

278. Her dress is made of silk.

j. partition

279. He took one of my books.

k. agency

280. That is the work of an enemy.

l. the idea of apposition or identity

281. Very few people live in the City of London.

m. contents

282. The glass is full of water.

C) Idiomatic uses: none is recorded.

4.2.1.35. Off

A) Spatial senses

a. from whatever is mentioned

283. The picture fell off the wall.

b. away from

284. The ship was off the island.

B) Other senses : no other senses are recorded for off.

C) Idiomatic uses

a. off duty: free from duty

285. A policewoman does not wear uniform while off duty.

b. off work: not working .

286. We didn't see him because he was off work.

In the same way, we may speak of school children being off school.

c. off one's food: having no desire for food

287. Because of his illness, he feels off his food.

d. off colour: not feeling well

288. She seems off colour today.

e. off one's head: out of one's mind

289. After the accident, he went off his head.

f. off the point: not relevant

290. The speaker kept wandering off the point.

4.2.1.36. On

A) Spatial senses

a. position in relation to another object

291. The dog was sleeping on the mat.

b. a location which is the recipient of an activity

292. She knocked on the door.

c. the place where something stands or is situated

293. Baghdad stands on the Tigris.

In relation to this sense, on is often used with compound place-names such as:

Southend-on-Sea; Harrow-on-the-Hill; Stratford-on-Avon

d. a means of support from beneath

294. The roof of the building is supported on four pillars.

e. direction or relation to some person or object

295. Take the first turning on your left.

B) Other senses

a. time (used only for specific days), as in:

on Monday; on Sunday evening; on June 25th, etc.

b. the idea of one thing or one action following immediately after another, or being almost simultaneous with it

296. On hearing the crash, he rushed out of the house.

c. reason, condition or grounds

297. On his doctor's advice, he took a month's holiday.

d. about or concerning, in relation to the subject of a book, article, talk, lecture, etc., as in:

a book on Milton; an article on poetry; a lecture on Pope.

e. the basis of an arrangement or a transaction as in:

to let something out on hire; to have something on loan; to have goods on approval.

f. an objective relationship between the noun or pronoun that follows on and the one that precedes it

298. The bully had no mercy on his victims.

g. the sense "at the expense of"

299. The next round of drinks is on me.

h. the sense "connected with"

300. He is on the council.

i. the sense "employed in"

301. He is on a job in the North Sea.

j. the idea of "dependence"

302. He lives on the State.

k. followed by "the + verb", used as a noun to suggest the idea expressed by the present participle

303. Keep the kettle on the boil.

l. followed by "the + adjective" to make a phrase expressive of an adverbial sense

304. I will tell you on the quiet.

C. Idiomatic uses

a. on account of: because of

305. He cannot run on account of his asthma.

b. on about: talking a lot about the same subject

306. Bill was on about you the other day.

4.2.1.37. Onto: This preposition expresses the combined ideas of to/towards and on.

A. Spatial senses

a. motion towards the upper surface of something

307. The boys jumped onto the ice and played on it.

b. the place where something is put or falls

308. She slammed the bottle down onto the tray.

B. Other senses

a. to introduce a new subject

309. The conversation shifts onto art, music and theatre.

b. to start a new activity

310. I want to come onto that in a minute.

c. the person towards whom an action or emotion is directed

311. The education of the village boys has been forced onto us.

d. something or someone becomes included as a part of a list or group of people

312. There are extra workers who will come onto the labour market.

C) Idiomatic uses: none is recorded.

4.2.1.38. Opposite (to): generally, opposite, followed, as it frequently is, by to, is an adjective or adverb; but to is sometimes omitted and opposite is then left to do the work of a preposition.

A) Spatial senses

a. on the side opposed to and facing

313. The hotel was opposite(to) a railway station.

b. next to or on the same line

314. The man wrote "50 dollars" opposite the word "value".

B) Other senses: none is recorded

C) Idiomatic uses: none is recorded.

4.2.1.39. Out of

A) Spatial senses

a. the meaning "from within" or "from inside"

315. She fell out of her cot.

b. the meaning "from or through something to the outside"

316. The burglar came out of the door.

c. removing something from the place where it is enclosed or stored

317. Could you take it out of the fridge for me?

d. projection from a surface or object

318. A nail was sticking out of the wall.

e. distance from a specified place

319. They had an accident a few miles out of Baghdad.

B) Other senses

a. the meaning of beyond in such phrases as:

out of sight; out of reach; out of danger; out of control, etc.

320. He ran away and was soon out of sight.

b. a source

321. The preacher took as his text some words out of the Bible.

c. the idea of "not having" or "no longer having" in phrases such as:

out of a job; out of milk; out of work; out of office, etc.

322. They were out of milk.

d. the idea "from among"

323. Out of all the people present, only two spoke in favour of the proposal.

e. the idea of transformation of one thing into another or the material from which something is made

324. Flour is made out of wheat.

f. motive

325. She did it out of spite/jealousy/kindness.

C) Idiomatic uses

a. out of fashion or out of date: old-fashioned; no longer in use

326. That kind of dress is out of fashion.

b. out of hand: 1. beyond control (328) 2. at once (329)

327. You should not allow your child to get out of hand.

328. I cannot comply with your request out of hand; I must consider it first.

c. out of one's mind: mad

329. The poor fellow went out of his mind.

d. out of temper: bad-tempered

330. He easily gets out of temper.

e. out of the way: out of reach

331. Any dangerous implements should be kept out of the way of children.

f. out-of-the-way: remote; not easy to find or reach

332. The cottage is situated in an out-of-the-way place, several miles from the nearest village.

4.2.1.40. Outside (of): this preposition is often followed by of in American English.

A) Spatial senses: it has only the following spatial sense: at or on the outer side of

333. He is waiting for her outside the college.

B) Other senses

a. not happening during a particular period of time

334. You will have to do it outside office hours.

b. beyond the limits of

335. No one outside the family knew of the affair.

c. other than

336. He has few hobbies outside swimming and gardening.

C) Idiomatic uses: none is recorded.

4.2.1.41. Over

A) Spatial senses

a. directly above

337. The sky is over our heads.

b. above and covering

338. She spread a cloth over the table.

c. in front of and covering

339. The burglar put a mask over his face.

d. above and onto the other side of

340. We climbed over the gate.

e. downwards from the edge of

341. The child fell over the cliff.

f. as the result of collision with

342. He fell over the chair.

g. across; from one side to the other

343. He walked over the road to greet me.

h. beyond

344. The sun disappeared over the horizon.

B) Other senses

a. through (a period of time)

345. Over the next two months, they were very careful.

b. while one is having something

346. We can discuss the matter over dinner.

c. above in status or position

347. A new manager has been appointed over us.

d. higher than in number, amount or quality

348. Over five hundred people were present at the ceremony.

e. in doing something

349. They are taking a very long time over a simple job.

f. about; concerning

350. The quarrel was over a small child.

C) Idiomatic uses

a. get over (a thing): this idiomatic expression has the following two meanings:

recover from

351. He soon got over his illness.

cover

352. The horse got over the distance in ten minutes.

b. all over the world: through the world

353. Sheffield cutlery is known all over the world.

c. cry over: cry on account of

354. It is no use crying over spilt milk.

d. over and above: besides

355. There are many confusions in our dealings with foreigners, over and above language difficulties.

e. over to: indicating the person who will speak

356. And now over to our correspondent in Belfast.

4.2.1.42. Past

A) Spatial senses

a. to express the idea of passing by someone or something

357. The soldiers marched past the church.

b. to denote the idea of beyond

358. The theatre was past the post office.

B) Other senses

a. to indicate the idea of beyond in time

359. It was past midnight when we arrived home.

b. to convey the idea of beyond in condition

360. The old man is past work.

C. Idiomatic uses: this preposition has only the following idiomatic use:

put it past somebody indicating that he/she is likely to do it

361. I would not put it past him to do it while we were away.

4.2.1.43. Through

A) Spatial senses

a. the idea of penetration.

362. The rain poured through the roof.

b. the idea of penetration, or partial penetration, of something by which one is surrounded

363. They used to travel to Mecca through the desert.

c. the idea of coming or going by way of

364. The missile went flying through the air.

d. the idea of a point by way of which something passes on a course or a route

365. The train from Glasgow to London passes through Carlisle.

e. the notion of using something as a medium

366. He was looking through the window to see them.

B) Other senses

a. the idea "from the beginning to the end of a specified period of time"

367. We preferred to travel through the night.

b. the meaning "by means of" or "by way of" an intermediary

368. Inflammable articles must not be sent through the post.

c. the idea of subjecting someone to the various stages of a test or ordeal

369. The product is put through many tests before it is finally approved as satisfactory.

d. the idea of thoroughness or completeness

370. I have been through this pile of papers but the missing letter is not there.

e. cause

371. He became ill through overwork.

f. the idea of penetration by vision

372. The house could easily be seen through the mist.

C) Idiomatic uses

a. get through: this idiomatic expression can be used in the following contexts:

get through a task: finish

373. He can get through the work in three days.

get through a test: pass

374. John has got through his driving test at last.

b. go through: this idiom can be used in the following ways:

discuss or examine carefully

375. Let's go through the arguments again.

perform; take part in

376. We went through a ceremony last week.

undergo or suffer

377. They went through many hardships.

reach the end of; spend

378. He quickly went through his fortune.

be sold out

379. This book went through ten editions.

c. put one through it: subject one to a severe ordeal

380. Wait until you get into the army; they will put you through it.

4.2.1.44. Throughout

A) Spatial senses: this preposition denotes only the meaning of "in every part of some specified place", e.g.

381. A search was made throughout his house.

B) Other senses: There is just one other sense related to this preposition. It indicates the meaning "during the whole of some specified period of time", e.g.

382. It poured with rain throughout the night.

C) Idiomatic uses: none is recorded.

4.2.1.45. To

A) Spatial senses

a. in the direction of or towards

383. The girl went to school.

b. a point of arrival or completion

384. I travelled to France last year.

c. as far as

385. I will come with you to the next stop.

d. the idea of approaching towards and in contact with

386. She raised the glass to her lips.

B) Other senses: the following are the chief senses that can be

denoted by this preposition, though it is quite impossible to make an exhaustive list:

a. in telling the time before

387. It is ten to six.

b. the result of a change

388. He drank himself to death.

c. a person or a thing to which an activity is directed

389. I will speak to your father about the matter.

d. the notion of extent, or the meaning "to the point of"

390. He drained the cup to the last drop.

e. the meaning "from the point of view of" or "so far as someone or something is concerned"

391. To a child, any unfamiliar noise may be frightening.

f. the result of addition, subtraction, reduction, etc.

392. The price has been reduced to fifty pounds.

g. the idea of having as characteristic, a quality, or a part, as in:

a story with a moral to it, a box with a lid to it, food with a taste to it.

h. the idea of "resulting in"

393. To our surprise, the train was early for once.

i. the object of a wish, mainly in toasts

394. Let us drink to the health of the bride.

j. to give a precise application to a preceding adjective

395. The bridge is closed to heavy traffic.

k. in an adjectival sense after certain adjectives, to denote the person affected by the notion expressed in the adjective

396. She was always kind to children.

C) Idiomatic uses: this preposition has only the following idiomatic use: nothing to it/not much to it: so easy or simple

397. There is nothing to it.

Sometimes, the preposition to is preceded by a verb such as "put", "tear", "stone", etc. to express the object at which the motion expressed by the verb is directed, as in:

put to death/sleep/ shame; tear to shreds; stone to death

4.2.1.46. Toward(s): it is noteworthy that both forms, i.e. with or without "s", are acceptable despite the fact that toward is mainly used in American English whereas towards is mainly used in British English. The present writer believes that the forms are interchangeable semantically and, therefore, it is better to list them as toward(s).

A) Spatial senses

a. in the direction of; to

398. He saw his mother running toward(s) him.

b. near; just before

399. We are coming toward(s) the end of the cave.

B) Other senses

a. near as regards time, age, etc.

400. She must be getting on toward(s) fifty.

b. in the direction of some object or purpose which one has in view

401. We will put the prize money toward(s) paying off the mortgage on the house.

c. with regard to

402. Her attitude toward(s) me has been changed.

C) Idiomatic sense: none is recorded.

4.2.1.47. Under

A) Spatial senses

a. beneath

403. There is a cupboard under the sink.

b. at the foot of or close against

404. We shall be out of the wind if we stand under this wall.

B) Other senses

a. subject to the control or authority of

405. He has nearly fifty men under him.

b. less than

406. Only people under forty need apply.

c. by the authority of

407. The prosecution was brought under the Obscene Publications Act.

d. subjected to, as in:

under pressure; under arrest; under duress

Sometimes the idea of "subjected to" gives place to that of "bound by", e.g. under an oath of loyalty.

e. indicating a classification, heading, entry, etc. in a list, book or index

408. You will find these books listed under "Literature".

f. indicating a "cover" of one's identity

409. The detective gained admission to the club under the disguise of an army officer.

g. in process of

410. The road is under repair.

C) Idiomatic uses

a. under age: not yet of the age laid down as a minimum

411. He was not allowed to go in because he is under age.

b. under cover: literally: under shelter (412);

metaphorically: obscured by; hidden by (413)

412. We have to get under cover during a storm.

413. The prisoner escaped under cover of darkness.

c. under fire: literally: subjected to gunfire (414);

metaphorically: severely criticised or attacked (415)

414. Many of them were killed when they were under fire.

415. The Government's plans came under fire from the Opposition.

d. under foot: a. literally: beneath the feet; on the ground (416); b. metaphorically: tread under foot: treat ruthlessly (417)

416. It was very wet under foot.

417. They used to tread him under foot.

e. under lock and key: safely locked up

418. All the valuables were kept under lock and key.

f. under one's nose: obvious; immediately in front of one

419. He can never find anything unless it is under his nose.

g. under the sun: in the world

420. There is nothing new under the sun.

h. under the weather: not very well in health

421. I am feeling rather under the weather today.

4.2.1.48. Underneath

A) Spatial senses: this preposition has only the following spatial sense: under; below; beneath

422. There was a cat sleeping underneath the bed.

B) other senses: none is recorded.

C) Idiomatic uses: none is recorded.

4.2.1.49. Up

A) Spatial senses

a. the idea of movement from a lower to a higher level

423. They went up the hill.

b. at a higher level

424. They lived up the mountain.

c. the meaning "along"

425. Who is that man coming up the road.

d. in the direction (opposite) to the current

426. The fleet sailed up the river.

B) Other senses: none is recorded.

C) Idiomatic uses: none is recorded.

4.2.1.50. Upon

A) Spatial senses: this preposition has the same meaning as on when it is used to convey spatial senses. The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (1961: 1412) states that the distinction between on and upon is too slight to define, but upon is a little less colloquial.

B) Other senses: the preposition upon is still used in set phrases like "once upon time"; "upon my word", etc.

C) Idiomatic uses: this preposition is used in the following idiomatic uses though on could also be used, e.g.

a. come upon: discover accidentally

427. As I was searching through my desk, I came upon the misplaced

documents.

b. look upon: regard

428. I had always looked upon him as something of an authority on that subject.

c. In such phrases as "book upon book"; "mile upon mile", etc. to express the idea of accumulation (430) or succession (431)

429. He piled book upon book.

430. The woodland stretched for mile upon mile.

4.2.1.51. Via

A) Spatial senses: the only meaning that this preposition denotes is "by way of"

431. Go via the stairs when you discover a fire.

B) Other senses: none is recorded.

C) Idiomatic uses: none is recorded.

4.2.1.52. Within

A) Spatial senses

a. inside

432. All was quiet within the house.

b. inside specified bounds or limits

433. In the Middle Ages, people always lived within the walls of their towns.

c. just short of by a specified amount of distance

434. We were within a few miles of home when the accident occurred.

B) Other senses

a. not exceeding (in relation to time)

435. I shall be back within an hour.

b. not beyond

436. Try to live within your means.

c. among(st) the members of the group

437. Opinion within the profession is divided.

C) Idiomatic uses: this preposition is only used in the following idiomatic expression: within an ace of: very near to

438. They were within an ace of achieving their purpose.

4.3. Overlapping and Contrasts among English Prepositions

This is an outstanding phenomenon among prepositions in English. It means that certain prepositions are interchangeable in certain contexts, i.e. the same sense can be denoted by two or more prepositions without bringing about any change in meaning. However, in other contexts, the interchangeability of the same prepositions is unacceptable in the language. The following are instances of overlapping and contrasts among prepositions which are under study.

4.3.1. Aboard; On

Though the above two prepositions are considered interchangeable in some contexts, they do not have the same range. The preposition aboard contains the meaning of the preposition on plus the surface of the location. Thus, it is better to say

439a. They went aboard the plane.

than

439b. They went on the plane.

4.3.2. About; (A)round

In spite of the fact that these two prepositions are interchangeable in denoting certain spatial senses, the preposition around is more common. As Close (1977: 153) notes: "It is now out of fashion to use about to convey a spatial sense".

4.3.3. Above; Over

Above and over can both be used to mean "higher than" and sometimes either can be used, e.g.

440a. The water came up above/over our knees.

440b. Can you see the helicopter above/over the palace?

But when the meaning is "crossing" (441a) or "covering" (441b), over is usually used, e.g.

441a. The plane was flying over Denmark.

441b. There is a thick cloud over the south of England.

It is more common to use over (more than) with numbers and expressions of quantity or measurement, as in:

442a. There were over 100,000 people at the festival.

442b. You have to be over 18 to see this film.

Above, however, is used when we think about measurement on a vertical (up and down) scale, as in:

443a. The temperature is three degrees above zero.

443b. Heights of land are given above sea-level.

Wood (1967), however, states that though the two prepositions over and above are used to denote the meaning "higher than" they are not identical: above means "higher than", whereas over implies that one thing is immediately or directly above the other, even if a distance separates them. Consider the following two examples:

444a. He held his hands above his head.

444b. He held his hands over his head.

The first sentence could mean that he held his hands straight up from his shoulders, so that they rose higher than his head. On the other hand, the second sentence means that his hands were superimposed over his head.

In relation to this difference of meaning, an object may be above you and yet not over you, while, if it is over you, it must be above you.

4.3.4. Across; Over

The prepositions across and over are often used with similar meanings, but there are some differences. Both of them can be used to mean "on or to the other side of a line, river, road", etc. (i.e. position or movement related to things that are long and thin). Consider the following examples:

445a. We walked over/across the road.

445b. See if you can jump over/across the stream.

445c. We 'll be over/across the frontier by midnight.

Both prepositions can also be used to convey the meaning "on the other side of a higher barrier", like a hedge, fence, wall, etc., e.g.

446. They managed to get over/across the fence.

But when the meaning "a movement to the other side of something high" is implied, only the preposition over is used, e.g.

447. When we last saw him he was climbing very slowly over the fence. (not * across the fence)

The two prepositions can be used for movement inside an area, like fields, a desert, a dance-floor, etc., e.g.

448. Who are those people wandering over/across the fields?

However, when we mean "from one side to the other of the area", we use only across, e.g.

449. It took him six weeks to walk across the desert. (not *.... over the desert)

Also, over is not normally used for movement in a three-dimensional space. If we want to imply this meaning, across is often used, e.g.

450. He walked across the room smiling strangely. (not * over the room)

The preposition across only is used when the meaning "in water" is implied, e.g.

451. How long would it take to swim across the river? (not * over the river?)

4.3.5. Across; Through

Although these two prepositions are used for a movement from one side of an area to another, the locations where the movement takes place are different. Compare the following two examples:

452. The lake was frozen, so we walked across the ice.

453. It took us two hours to walk through the forest.

The difference is obvious in that across is related to on — it suggests that the movement is on a surface while through is related to in — it suggests that the movement is through a three-dimensional space, with things on all sides. Through, however, is not used for a movement from one side to the other of something long and thin. We can say:

454. She swam across the river.

but not

455. *She swam through the river.

4.3.6. Among(st); Between

Many grammar books used to insist on the use of between in relation to two persons or things and among(st) in relation to more than two. This distinction is no longer observed. Consider the following examples:

456a. I saw something lying between the wheels of the train.

456b. Switzerland lies between Italy, Germany, and France.

456c. The members of the class collected fifty pounds between them.

Swan (1980: 50) argues that the distinction between the use of among and between depends on our perception of things. Between is used when we see the surrounding objects separately, i.e. each one is clearly distinct from the others. Among, on the other hand, is used when there is a collection of things that we do not see separately, e.g.

457. He built a house among the trees.

Bryant (1962: 38) has stated almost the same thing. Between is used in reference to two or to more than two in expressing the relation of a thing to other surrounding things severally and individually. Among is used to express a relation to them collectively and vaguely. Therefore, we would not say "the space lying among three points" or "a treaty among three powers" or "the choice lies among the three candidates".

4.3.7. At; In; On

Although these prepositions are used to talk about position in space, the differences between them are rather complicated, and it is not always easy to know which of the three is correct. In general, at is used when we talk about position at a point, on is used when we talk about position on a line or on a surface and if we talk about position in a place that has three dimensions (length, breadth and depth), the preposition in is used. However, consider the sentences below:

458a. My car is at the cottage.

458b. There is a new roof on the cottage.

458c. There are two beds in the cottage.

From the above examples, it becomes quite obvious that what we have just mentioned is irrelevant since we use the three prepositions at, on, and in with the same space (cottage). In the first example, the preposition at is used because the space "cottage" as a volume of three dimensions, becomes dimensionless, i.e. a mere point in relation to which the car's position can be indicated. With on, in the second example, the cottage becomes a two-dimensional area, covered by a roof. With in, in the third example, the cottage presents its reality as a three-dimensional object. In relation to what has been said above, Quirk and Greenbaum (1973: 146) declare that "When we use a preposition to indicate place, we do so in relation to the dimensional properties of the location concerned". According to Bennett (1975) what matters in the choice of a preposition of place relation is the way an object is thought of on a particular occasion. Consider the following examples:

459a. The Hollands live in Coventry.

459b. You have to change trains at Coventry.

459c. More bombs were dropped on Coventry than on Nottingham.

Coventry is thought of as the area enclosed by the city boundary (459a), or as a point on an itinerary (459b), or as a surface (459c).

Swan (1980) seems to agree with what has been stated by Bennett. To him, what determines the choice of a preposition is the person's interest in the object that he thinks of. A person who comes from a small town like Bicester will probably say,

460a. I live in Bicester.

but somebody who is going by train from Birmingham to London will say,

460b. The train stops at Bicester.

For the first person, the place is well-known and important; it has streets, houses, churches, shops, etc. But for the second one, the same place is considered just as a point on a journey. Thus, we often use at with the name of a place when we are interested in the activity that happens there and not in the exact shape or dimensions of the place. Consider the following examples:

461. We met him at the station.

462. She works at Littlewoods.

In these two examples, we use at because we are not interested in the nature and size of the two buildings. We simply think of the station as a meeting place (461) and his sister's employer or the place where she works (462).

For this reason, at is very often used when we talk about places of entertainment, cafes, and restaurants, and about the places where people work or study, e.g. "at the Savoy", "at the theatre", "at school", "at university", etc.

In relation to addresses, the preposition at is used if only the house number is mentioned whereas in is used if only the name of the street is mentioned, e.g.

463a. She lives at number 73.

463b. She lives in Park Avenue.

If both the number and the street-name are given, only at is used, e.g.

463c. She lives at 73 Park Avenue.

With regard to time, the preposition on is used if a point of time is named, e.g. on Sunday, on July 27th, on New Year's day, on my birthday. In is used in expressions denoting duration as: in October, in Summer, in the Christmas holiday, in 1963, in the Seventeenth Century, in ancient times, etc. and only the preposition at is used in such expressions as: at the present, at noon, at midday, etc.

4.3.8. Away from; Off; Out of

These prepositions indicate exactly the opposite meanings to those expressed by at, on, and in respectively. Consider the following examples:

464. Jean is away from home = Jean is not at home

465. The books fell off the table = The books are not on the table.

466. He is out of the room = He is not in the room

With verbs indicating movement, out of is used as the converse of into, e.g.

467. The police pushed him out of/into the car.

4.3.9. Before; In front of

In modern English, before is not often used as a preposition of place relation; in front of is used instead. In spite of the fact that in some contexts these two prepositions are interchangeable, in many others, the use of before instead of in front of brings about typical mistakes. Compare the following two examples:

468. Put the desk in front of the window.

469. *Put the desk before the window.

Before, and not, in front of, is used in the following cases:

a. talking about the order of things vertically and horizontally,
e.g.

470a. Your name comes before mine.

470b. The letter "A" comes before "B".

b. to mean in the presence of (somebody important):

471. I came up before the magistrate for fast driving last week.

4.3.10. Behind; After

While the preposition behind is the actual converse of the prepositions in front of, facing, opposite, ahead of, and before, the preposition after, though it seems a second converse of some of the prepositions, cannot act as such, except when one is talking about the order of things as stated above, e.g.

472a. Your name comes after mine.

472b. The letter "B" comes after "A"

4.3.11. Below; Beneath; Under(neath)

All the above prepositions can be used to convey the meaning "lower than" and sometimes any of them can be used; however there are

some differences. The following two examples show the difference between under(neath) and below

473a. The coin is under(neath) my hand.

473b. The coin is below my hand.

In the first sentence, there is some kind of contact between the hand and the coin whereas in the second example, there is a space between the two. In speaking, for example, about the design of a house, if we say,

474a. The kitchen is below the bathroom.

we may mean simply that it is on a lower floor; but if we say,

474b. The kitchen is under(neath) the bathroom,

we make it clear that it occupies approximately the equivalent position on a lower floor.

Though Quirk and Greenbaum (1973: 149) state that "underneath and beneath are less common substitutes for under", the preposition beneath is sometimes used instead of under and below particularly when it is used figuratively, as in the following example:

475. She married beneath her.

4.3.12. Beside; Next(to)

Though these two prepositions are considered the same in conveying the idea "by/at the side of", the sense denoted by next(to) is rather different from that denoted by beside. Consider the following two examples:

476a. He was sitting beside her.

476b. He was sitting next(to) her.

In the second sentence, the use of next(to) indicates that there is nothing separating the two persons.

4.3.13. Beyond; Past

These two prepositions are interchangeable in denoting the sense "on the farther side of", e.g.

477. The sea is beyond/past that big hill.

But only the preposition past is used to convey the idea of "passing by something or someone", e.g.

478. He walked past the gate.

4.3.14. By; Near

Though these two prepositions convey approximately the same spatial sense of closeness or nearness, the use of by indicates a closer location than near. Compare

479a. We live near the sea.

479b. They live by the sea.

The second sentence indicates that they live nearer to the sea than we do.

4.3.15. Facing; In front of; Opposite

These three prepositions can denote the same meaning in certain contexts but, in other contexts, some errors are likely to occur if one instead of the other is used. The preposition in front of is not used when we talk about things which are on opposite sides of a road, river, room, etc. The normal words are opposite and facing. It is more acceptable to say

480. There is a nice little cafe opposite/facing our house.
than

481. There is a little nice cafe in front of our house.

4.3.16. Down; Up

Both down and up are in common use and they are direct opposites. However, it is not easy to make a clear rule about their use in relation to roads and places. A person may go down or up the road; he may also come up and down the road. Thus, it is obvious that it is not the verb that determines which preposition one has to use. In the case of a main road or a street in the heart of a town, down is generally used for direction away from the town centre, and up for direction towards it. On the other hand, for side streets and streets in the suburbs, the tendency seems to be towards the use of down for direction away from where one is at the time of speaking, and up for direction towards it. Similarly, of places and districts, down and up are used for places south and north of where the speaker is. Thus, anyone in the Midlands speaking on the telephone to someone in Kent or Surrey, will probably ask:

482. What is the weather like down your way?

But, considering London as the heart of the whole country, one always goes up to London whether it is north or south of the speaker. Therefore, a train going to London is an "up train" whereas one coming from London is a "down train".

4.3.17. For; From; To

While the preposition from indicates the starting-point of a change in position, the preposition to specifies the end-point. The preposition for is used to indicate the idea of destination and is, to a large extent, similar in meaning to this use of to. However, there are certain verbs such as "leave", "set sail", "take off", "depart", etc. which require the use of the preposition for.

4.3.18. In; Inside

The prepositions in and inside are often, but not always, interchangeable. The following two examples may indicate the same meaning though the idea of enclosure is stronger in the second:

483a. The rabbit is in the cage.

483b. The rabbit is inside the cage.

However, corresponding to:

484. John is in the water.

there is no sentence:

485. * John is inside the water.

Nor is there a sentence:

486. * I found the spoon inside the sand.

corresponding to:

487. I found the spoon in the sand.

From the above examples, it becomes clear that the two prepositions in and inside are not always interchangeable. The morphological structure of inside, specifically, the fact that it contains the morpheme "side", reflects its semantic structure. Inside cannot be used unless the object that follows it has sides. A house does have sides, but water and sand do not.

4.3.19. In; Into

As a general rule, into is used to talk about a movement which ends in a particular space; for position without movement, in is used. Compare the following two examples:

488. He came into the room laughing.

489. She lives in that room.

In and into, however, are usually interchangeable when verbs

describing a movement with an end such as "put", "jump", "fall", etc. are used, e.g.

490. He put his hands in/into his pockets.

491. She fell in/into a hole in the garden.

Even so, the use of in and into in such sentences brings about a semantic difference. Wood (1967: 50) states that the use of in represents the entire process of transference, whereas with into, one thinks merely of the end of the process, i.e. the depositing of something in a particular place.

However, in cannot be used with all verbs of this kind. Thus we can say:

492. She dived into the swimming pool.

but not (except colloquially)

493. *She dived in the swimming pool.

As for verbs that refer to movement such as "go", "come", "walk", "run", etc. only into can be used, e.g.

494. I walked out into the garden to think.

495. She came into my study holding a newspaper.

With regard to form, the two forms into and in to are considered by some grammarians to be the same and both can represent the same meaning. In fact, the orthographic difference between the two forms brings about a difference in meaning. Compare the following two examples:

496a. The teacher went into the library.

496b. The teacher went in to the library.

In (496a), there is only one goal, i.e. the interior of the library. In (496b), there are two goals; the first one is expressed by the use of in which conveys the meaning "to the interior of the

building", the other is the library. Thus, the sentence says that the teacher went into the building and then to the library.

4.3.20. In; Within

Where the above two prepositions are interchangeable, within is considered slightly more formal than in (see Leech, 1975: 85). Besides, within, but not in, is often used to indicate a location bounded by limits, as in

497. He lives within the walls of the castle.

4.3.21. On; Onto

The preposition onto corresponds closely to into. (P.67). It indicates motion towards the upper surface of something, e.g.

498. The dog jumped onto the table.

However, the preposition on, like in, can be used for both position and movement as shown below:

499. He was sitting on his case.

500. He climbed on the table.

Similarly, the distinction between into and in to (P.68), applies to onto and on to. The first form, though considered for a long time incorrect, is quite common in written English nowadays. Consider the following examples:

501a. The child ran onto the grass.

501b. The child ran on to the grass.

The second of these sentences says that the child ran farther and then to the grass.

4.3.22. To; Toward(s)

Spatially, the preposition to is used to indicate the completion of movement whereas toward(s) is used to convey the idea that movement is in progress, i.e. the goal is not actually reached. Therefore, we may note that the use of toward(s) frequently co-occurs with the progressive aspect, e.g.

502. John was walking towards the bus station when I saw him.

This chapter has surveyed the main uses of English prepositions of place relation and overlapping among them. The objective behind the presentation of this chapter is twofold. First, it gives the reader a general idea of the various senses denoted by each preposition. Second, all the senses mentioned in Category (A) will be the material of Chapter seven, i.e. the Contrastive Analysis. The other senses mentioned in Category (B) will be the material of Appendix (A).

Chapter Five

Arabic Prepositions

5.1. Introduction

This chapter displays some views of how the Arabic prepositional system functions in the Arabic language. It deals with some facts relative to Arabic prepositions in general, such as their definition, number, origin, classification and omission. The main objective behind this chapter is to give the reader a general view of the Arabic prepositional system and whether it functions similarly or differently from the English prepositional system, which has been previously introduced.

5.2. General Characteristics Relevant to Arabic Prepositions

In classifying Arabic words, the most fundamental classification of lexical items recognized by most Arab grammarians is the well-known three-fold classification into noun/*ism*/, verb/*fi9l*/ and particle/*ḥarf*/. However, some other grammarians have tried to present a more extensive classification of words in Arabic. It embraces nine classes in all: the generic noun, the infinitive, the derived noun, the proper noun, the verb, the particle, the personal pronoun, the demonstrative pronoun, and the relative pronoun. But this is not to say that the three-fold classification is superseded. Two of the three parts of speech remain intact, namely, the verb and the particle. The remaining seven classes are all in effect sub-classes of the noun.

To make it clear for a non-native speaker of Arabic, the word-class noun includes nouns, adjectives, and pronouns. Adverbs,

prepositions, conjunctions and interjections are subsumed under the "particle".

With respect to word classification, Arab grammarians specify how far a word-class is independent. For them, a noun signifies a meaning for its own sake and for this reason stands by itself as a totally self-sufficient unit of significance. The particle, on the other hand, signifies a meaning, not for its own sake, but as an element "in something else"/*fii gayrihi*/ and therefore has significance only within a context, i.e. only when adjoined to other words. The verb signifies part of its meaning for its own sake and part as an element "in something else". Thus, the verb is said to be dependent upon the verbal context with respect to its total meaning considered as a single entity.

The other important characteristic relevant to Arabic prepositions is the case system, which should be included in any discussion of the morphological, syntactic and semantic properties of prepositions in the Arabic language. The Arabic case system recognizes three case endings: nominative, accusative and genitive. Each case is designated by a characteristic short vowel suffix: /u/ for the nominative, /a/ for the accusative and /i/ for the genitive, e.g.

Nominative

Accusative

Genitive

/ʔalwaladu/

/ʔalwalada/

/ʔalwaladi/

(the boy)

Finally, definiteness is another linguistic area that has to be tackled when dealing with prepositions in the Arabic language, since it is of similar relevance to the analysis of Arabic prepositions. Arabic grammar permits a noun to be definite in two ways. The first

one, as shown above, is to add the definite article /al/ (the) before the defined noun as well as the short vowel termination after it. The other way is through /idaafa/(annexation). By this process, a noun is added to another noun. The first noun, the annexed, loses the definite article but keeps its case suffix while the second noun, the annexing, should be in the genitive case, e.g.

1. /haaʔaa kitaabu ʔalwaladi/

(This book the boy)

This is the book of the boy/the boy's book.

The above example shows clearly that the two nouns, i.e. the annexed and the annexing, have been brought into relation through the annexation process. This structure is mostly similar to the structure in which a preposition is used to bring two nouns, the second of which should be in the genitive case, into relation, e.g.

2. /waɖa9a ʔalkitaaba 9alaa ʔalminɖadati/

(put he the book on the table)

He put the book on the table.

If the preposition /9alaa/(on) is deleted from the above example, the sentence becomes nonsensical.

5.3. Definition of Arabic Prepositions

Arabic grammar separates prepositions out of the class of particles by designating them as /huruuf ʔaljarr/(particles of attraction) or /ʔaljawaarr/(the attractives). They are also referred to as /huruuf ʔalxafd/(particles of depression or lowering) as well as /huruuf ʔalʔidaafa/(particles of annexation or connection). (See Algalaayini, 1973: 165; Wright, 1951: 278).

They are called /huruuf ʔaljarr/, /ʔaljawaarr/ or /hurruuf

?alxafd/ because syntactically they genitivize or lower the nouns following them, i.e. adding /i/ after the final consonant, e.g.

3. /?alkitaabu fii ?alhadiiqati/

(the book in the garden)

The book is in the garden.

As for their designation /huruuf ?al?idaaafa/, prepositions are so called because they carry over the meaning of the verbs preceding them to the nouns following them, since such verbs cannot function in this way without the mediation of a preposition, e.g.

4. /tahaba ?altaalibu ?ilaa ?almdrasati/

(went the student to the school)

The student went to school.

The verb /tahaba/(went), which is intransitive, cannot carry its meaning directly to the noun /?almdrasati/(school). Thus, the presence of /?ilaa/ (to) in such a context is obligatory to relate the meaning of the preceding verb /tahaba/ to the noun that follows (see Algalaayiini, 1973: 166; Hassan, 1973: 431).

Arab as well as foreign grammarians define Arabic prepositions as words and prefixes devoid of any inflection and which are meaningless by themselves. They become meaningful when used jointly with other words, i.e. in a context. Thus, the preposition /min/(from) standing alone is meaningless, but its meaning becomes obvious when used in a sentence such as the following:

5. /jaa?a ?alwaladu min ?alsuuqi/

(came the boy from the market)

The boy came from the market.

The use of the preposition /min/ in the above example indicates the starting point of the boy's journey.

A preposition is, therefore, a single function word placed immediately before a noun, together with which it constitutes a prepositional phrase. It has specific grammatical functions, chief among which is the connection or relation between words. A word or a prefix cannot be considered a preposition in the Arabic language unless it is followed by a noun, i.e. Arabic prepositions always affiliate with the nouns following them.

Sometimes, because of this prescriptive rule, a sort of fluctuation takes place when Arab grammarians want to account linguistically for Arabic prepositions, i.e. when they want to give an adequate definition in purely functional terms. Consider the following two examples:

6a. /waḍaʔtu ʔalqalama 9alaa ʔalminḡadati/

(put I the pen on the table)

I put the pen on the table.

6b. /waqa9a ʔalqalamu min 9alaa ʔalminḡadati/

(fell the pen from on the table)

The pen fell off the table.

In the first example, the preposition /9alaa/ linguistically functions as a relator between what precedes and what follows. Out of this context, i.e. standing alone, as mentioned on the previous page, /9alaa/ as a preposition has no meaning. In the second example, Arab grammarians consider /9alaa/ a noun, not a preposition, governed by the preposition /min/. (See Hasan, 1973: 512; Algalaayinii, 1973: 178; Haywood, 1970: 423; Beeston, 1970: 88)

Semantically speaking, the combination of /min/ and /9alaa/ into one unit locates the place from which the movement starts. Thus, logically, the NP /ʔalminḡadati/(the table) is syntactically governed

by the two prepositions /min 9alaa/(from on) since the NP /?alqalamu/(the pen) fell off /?alminḡadati/(the table) and not off /9alaa/(on).

As for Arab grammarians' claim that /9alaa/ functions as a noun in (6a), the present writer, as a native speaker of Arabic, can state that /9alaa/, and all like words immediately following prepositions, cannot be considered nouns since they cannot behave like nouns in all contexts, i.e. they cannot fit into every slot occupied by nouns. This encourages him, i.e. the present writer, to consider /min 9alaa/ as a compound preposition governing the genitive noun /?alminḡadati/(the table).

5.4. Number of Arabic Prepositions

There seems to be a consensus among Arab grammarians that the number of all kinds of prepositions in the Arabic language is twenty. This fact is mentioned in all Arabic grammar books. Ibn Maalik, an Arab grammarian, wrote a poem of one thousand verses describing all the grammatical features including prepositions. The twenty prepositions were laid out in two lines as follows:

/min, ?ilaa, ḡattaa, xalaa, ḡaaḡaa, 9adaa, fii, 9an, 9alaa, mut,
munḡu, rubba, laam, kay, waaw, taa?, kaaf, baa?, la9alla, mataa/.

However, some Arab grammarians exclude some prepositions, namely, /9alaa/(on) (P.5) and /kaaf/(like) from the list, considering these two prepositions as nouns (see Abii Asbar, 1968: 36). Consider the following example:

7. /maa min ʃayʔin nafa9a ʔalnaasa kaʔal9ilmi/

(no from thing benefited people like the science)

Nothing has benefited man like science.

The preposition /kaaf/ in this example is considered a noun, meaning /miølu/(like) and it is the subject of the verb /nafa9a/.

The basic meanings of the twenty prepositions listed above are as follows:

- | | |
|----------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. /min/: from; of | 2. /ʔilaa/: to; towards |
| 3. /hattaa/: until; up to | 4. /xalaa/: except |
| 5. /haʃaa/: except | 6. /9adaa/: except |
| 7. /fii/: at; in | 8. /9an/: from; away from |
| 9. /9alaa/: on | 10. /mut/: since; for; ago |
| 11. /mintu/: since; for; ago | 12. /rubba/: may |
| 13. /laam/: for; to; in order to | 14. /kay/: in order to |
| 15. /waaw/: by (for oath) | 16. /taaʔ/: by (for oath) |
| 17. /kaaf/: like; as | 18. /baaʔ/: in; at; by; with |
| 19. /la9alla/: perhaps | 20. /mataa/: when |

All other lexical items which denote position or location in Arabic are considered /ʔuruuf/(adverbs). Arabic grammar excludes words such as /fawqa/(over, above), /tahta/(below, under), /bayna/(among, between), etc. from the word-class of prepositions and considers them adverbs. This distinction and the reasons behind it will be accounted for in the following section.

5.5. Prepositions and Adverbs

Despite the fact that prepositions and adverbs are considered particles in the Arabic language, Arabic grammar makes a clear division between them. However, no attempt has been made by Arab grammarians to examine any similar features between the two, whether morphological, syntactic or semantic. This is due to the fact that the structure of Arabic has been kept intact throughout the centuries because of the conservative influence of the /Qur'aan/, the Muslims' Holy Book. To quote David Cowan (1968: 5) "the fundamental grammar of written Arabic has hardly changed at all during the last thirteen centuries."

As previously mentioned, Arabic prepositions number twenty. Among them are locative prepositions such as /baa?/, /fii/ and /9alaa/ as well as directional prepositions such as /?ilaa/, /laam/, /hattaa/, /min/ and /9an/.

Arabic grammar thus draws a clear distinction between words such as /9alaa/(on) and /fawqa/(above, over) by considering the first a preposition and the second an adverb. This distinction seems unnatural to an English speaker as well as to the present writer who takes the position that both words, /9alaa/ and /fawqa/, might better be assigned to the same form class.

Many Arab as well as foreign grammarians have made attempts to account for the traditional. They have stated the following justifications:

1. Prepositions are more lexically primitive than adverbs since the latter are of nominal origin.

2. Prepositions are semantically distinct from adverbs in that they embody the roles of "movement to" and "movement from" a place.

3. Prepositions can be used figuratively, i.e. indicating meanings

other than their basic ones, whereas adverbs cannot. Compare the following two examples:

8. /ʔalkitaabu 9alaa ʔalriḥlati/

(The book on the desk)

The book is on the desk.

9. /ʃakartuhu 9alaa musaa9adatihi/

(thanked I him on help his)

I thanked him for his help.

The semantic content of /9alaa/ in each of the above sentences is different.

4. Prepositions, unlike adverbs, can combine with verbs to form verb-preposition idioms, i.e. expressions having specific semantic content not derivable from the separate meanings of the two parts. Consider the following example:

10. /ḥasaltu 9alaa hadiyyatin/

(got I on a present)

I got a present.

The verb-preposition /ḥasala 9alaa/ denotes the meaning "get" while /ḥasala/ means "to happen" and /9alaa/ means on.

5. A further distinction between prepositions and adverbs is that adverbs can be postponed to the end of the sentence, while it is impossible to end a sentence in any Arabic dialect with a preposition. Consider the following example:

11. /waqafa ʔalqaaʔidu ʔamaamu/

(stood the leader in front)

The leader stood in front.

In this sentence, the adverb is in a final position. However, such a case is rare if not obsolete, in the Arabic language. Moreover, as

previously mentioned (P.72), the preposition object is omitted from the above sentence for the sake of economy since it is implicit in the mind of the hearer and the speaker.

6. Adverbs, unlike prepositions, show inflection for the three cases, i.e. accusative, genitive and nominative. Compare the following examples:

12. /ʔalqittatu tahta ʔalkursiyyi/ (accusative)

(the cat under the table)

The cat is under the table.

13. /xarajat ʔalqittatu min tahti ʔalkursiyyi/ (genitive)

(went out the cat from under the chair)

The cat went out from under the chair.

14. /naamat alqittatu tahtu/ (nominative)

(slept the cat under)

*The cat slept under.

None of the above arguments strike the present writer as particularly convincing. If they are followed, lexical items such as /nahwa/ (towards), /fawqa/ (over, above), /bayna/ (between, among) and the like, are classified as adverbs, separate from prepositions. Yet, there are clearly similarities in the following two sentences:

15. /tahaba ʔalwaladu ʔilaa ʔalsuuqi/ (preposition)

(went the boy to the market)

The boy went to the market.

16. /tahaba ʔalwaladu nahwa ʔalsuuqi/ (adverb)

(went the boy towards the market)

The boy went towards the market.

It is quite unnatural to consider /ʔilaa/ in the first example as a preposition, but /nahwa/ in the second sentence as an adverb. The

words are alike on syntactic and semantic as well as morphological grounds.

At the syntactic level, both words genitivize their complements, forming with them a type of annexation structure, implying a type of linkage between what precedes and what follows. Semantically, they both have the capability of changing and adding to the meaning of words to which they are added. In the above two sentences, the prepositional phrases /ʔilaa ʔalsuuqi/ and /nahwa ʔalsuuqi/ add a new meaning to the sentence /tahaba ʔalwaladu/. At the same time, the meaning which the two convey is different in both sentences and this difference is brought about by the use of different prepositions. Morphologically, the two words are based on trilateral roots and are assumed to be of nominal origin.

The above mentioned facts, the present writer believes, are quite sufficient to allow us to consider, contrary to Arabic grammar, words such as /nahwa/ and the like as prepositions of place relations and not as adverbs.

5.6. Origin of Prepositions

The majority of Arabic prepositions are originally nouns in the adverbial accusative case. But, because, as Cantarino (1975) says, they are so frequently used in an adverbial function, they have lost their relationship to their original nominal character, whether partially as in /9alaa/ or completely as in /baaʔ/, /laam/, /9an/, /min/, and /hattaa/. Beeston (1970: 88) seems to agree with Cantarino, as he states that "it is not easy to establish for Arabic a clearly defined word-class of prepositions since most of its items seem to have been originally substantives". This fact has also been asserted

by Socin (1985: 88), who states that "prepositions are still recognizable as nouns of three radicals originally".

As a consequence of this nominal character, prepositions have a nominal governing influence only, i.e. they govern only a noun or its equivalent in the genitive case (17) and when governed by another preposition, as in a compound preposition, take the genitive ending (18):

17. /?ixtafa ?alwaladu waraa?a ?al?aʃjaari/

(hid the boy behind the the trees)

The boy hid behind the trees.

18. /jaa?a ?alwaladu min waraa?i ?al?aʃjaari/

(came the boy from behind the trees)

The boy came from behind the trees.

Moreover, in certain contexts, prepositions function identically to nouns, i.e. occupying the same slot occupied by nouns. Consider the following:

19. /maata qabla safari ?ibnihi/

(died he before his son's departure)

He died before his son's departure.

20. /maata yawma safari ?ibnihi/

(died he the day departure son his)

He died the day of his son's departure.

In these two examples, the preposition /qabla/ and the noun /yawma/ have the same structural status.

Some prepositions are even found, like nouns, in diminutive forms, e.g.

/qabla/ ___ /qubayla/ (before)

/ba9da/ ___ /bu9ayda/ (after)

However, in spite of these nominal characteristics, it cannot be denied that prepositions have become independent of the noun and that they are actually prepositions and not merely nouns in the accusative case. Thus, they will be dealt with as a separate grammatical category.

5.7. Classification of Arabic Prepositions

Prepositions in Arabic are classified on the basis of their morphological, syntactic and semantic characteristics.

5.7.1. Morphological Classification

Prepositions are divided into the following three categories:

a. Inseparable prepositions: to this class belong prepositions which have a nominal phonetic shape of one consonant plus a short vowel. They are always written as prefixes attached to their noun complements. These prepositions are /baa?/, /laam/, /kaaf/, /waaw/, and /taa?/. Bateson (1967: 38) defines this category as single unstressed syllables which tend to express syntactic relationships with the words they precede. These prepositions are called by some grammarians "proper" (Abul-Fetouh, 1969: 110) or "pure" (Mitchell, 1978: 17), since they do not share properties of any other form-class. Nasr (1967: 145) calls this class "prepositional syllables".

b. Separable Prepositions: to this class belong all one-word prepositions such as /min/, /9alaa/, /fawqa/, etc. This designation is given to these prepositions since they are independent lexical items.

c. Compound prepositions: by this class, we mean the occurrence of two prepositions in succession. In Arabic, most compound prepositions consist of the preposition /min/ plus another separate preposition.

Some examples of these are: /min fawqi/(from above/over), /min bayni/(from between/among), /min waraa?i/(from behind), etc.

5.7.2. Semantic and Syntactic Classifications

Arab grammarians insist that prepositions should be dealt with syntactically and semantically at the same time since they are interrelated on both levels. Prepositions, therefore, are classified into the following three categories:

A. Original Prepositions: on the semantic level, these prepositions are used to add a new sub-meaning to the context in which they are used. Consider the following examples:

21. /qadima ?almusaafiru/

(came the passenger)

The passenger came.

22. /qadima ?almusaafiru min ?alqaryati/

(came the passenger from the village)

The passenger came from the village.

23. /qadima ?almusaafiru min ?alqaryati ?ila ?almadiinati/

(came the passenger from the village to the town)

The passenger came from the village to the town.

24. /qadima ?almusaafiru min ?alqaryati ?ilaa ?almadiinati bi?alqitaari/

(came the passenger from the village to the town by the train)

The passenger came from the village to the town by train.

Sentence (21), despite the fact that it is meaningful, lacks many sub-meanings which could answer the possible questions that a person may ask as he hears this sentence. The preposition /min/ with its complement in sentence (22) adds a new meaning and that is "the

village", the starting-point of the traveller's journey. The prepositional phrase /?ilaa ?almadiinati/ in sentence (23) adds another new meaning, i.e. the traveller's destination. Furthermore, in example (24) the prepositional phrase /bi?algitaari/ adds a further meaning and that is the means used by the traveller to come from the village to the town.

Syntactically viewed, prepositions of this kind function, as previously mentioned (P.6), as a link between what precedes and what follows, since the verb cannot carry over its action directly to the following noun without the use of the preposition. Thus, the presence of such prepositions is obligatory and without them a sentence will be meaningless, e.g.

25. */qadima ?almusaafiru ?algaryati/

(came the traveller the village)

*The traveller came the village.

B. Extra Prepositions: the occurrence of such prepositions, Arab grammarians state, adds no new meaning to the context in which they are used. (See Algalaayiini, 1973: 197). Consequently, the omission of such prepositions does not influence the meaning of the sentence. Compare the following two examples:

26a. /maajaa?a min rajulin/

(no came from man)

No man came.

26b. /maajaa?a rajulun/

(no came man)

No man came.

Linguistically speaking, however, the addition of any word to a context should add a certain meaning to that context and, if it does

not, there is no purpose in using it. To the writer, the above two sentences are not semantically identical. The use of the preposition /min/ in sentence (26a) indicates that "no man at all came". The deletion of /min/ brings about the ambiguity of sentence (26b). It either conveys the same meaning as 26a or that no man came alone, i.e. two or three men came together.

Syntactically speaking, the preposition /min/ in this sentence has no function at all, i.e. it does not function as a link between what precedes and what follows. Moreover, although the noun /rajulin/ is genitivized by the preceding preposition, it functions as the subject of the verb /jaa?a/.

C. Semi-Extra Prepositions: to this category belong prepositions that add a new meaning to the contexts they are used in. The deletion of such prepositions will influence the meaning of the sentence. Compare the following two examples:

27a. /rubba ṣadiiqin muxliṣin' ?afḍalu min ?axin/

(may be a friend true better from a brother)

A true friend may be better than a brother.

27b. /ṣadiiqun muxliṣun ?afḍalu min ?axin/

(a friend true better from a brother)

A true friend is better than a brother.

The use of the preposition /rubba/ in example (27a) conveys the idea that the situation may or may not be the case, i.e. that a true friend may or may not be better than a brother. The omission of /rubba/ in example (27b) removes this sense, so that (27b) states that a true friend is in every case better than a brother.

Syntactically, these prepositions, in a similar way to the unnecessary ones, do not perform any function in the contexts they are

used in, i.e. they do not bring lexical items into relation. Also, the genitivized noun /sadiiqin/ functions as a subject, although it is governed by the preposition /rubba/ in the surface structure.

5.8. The Prepositional Phrase

The construction of a preposition with its complement in Arabic is called /?aljarr wa?almajruur/, i.e. the preposition with its complement. This construction will be referred to as the "prepositional phrase"(PP). It is worth mentioning that a sentence in Arabic is of two kinds, namely, the "nominal" sentence and the "verbal" sentence. The first designation is given to sentences beginning with nouns functioning as their subjects, e.g.

28. /9aliyyun jaa?a/

(Ali came)

Ali came.

29. /muḥammadun mujtahidun/

(Muhammad clever)

Muhammad is clever.

Sentence (29) is considered, unlike in English, grammatical though it does not contain a verb.

A verbal sentence is a sentence that begins with a verb. Sentence (28) above can be changed into a verbal sentence as follows:

30. /jaa?a 9aliyyun/

(came Ali)

Ali came.

The above sentence has no formal equivalent in English since in English a declarative sentence cannot be started by a verb.

In nominal sentences, therefore, a PP may function as a predicate,

e.g.

31. /?alqalamu 9alaa ?alrihlati/

(The pen on the desk)

The pen is on the desk.

The underlined PP is considered as a semi-sentence functioning as a predicate to the subject /?alqalamu/. If the subject in a nominal sentence is indefinite, the PP should be fronted, as in:

32. /9ala ?alrihlati qalamun/

(on the desk a pen)

There is a pen on the desk.

Also, a PP is usually fronted when it associates with a question word as in:

33. /?ilaa ?ayna tahabta?/

(to where went you?)

Where did you go?

In Arabic, a PP consisting of a preposition plus a defined noun is extremely common in initial position, e.g.

/min ?al₁aahiri/(It is obvious), /fii ?al₁haqiiqati/(In fact), /9alaa ?algaalibi/(It is often), etc.

These PPs, when used initially, have no syntactic function. They only add some semantic value to the context which they are used in, e.g.

34. /min al₁aahiri ?anna ?axii yu₁hibbuhaa/

(from obvious that my brother love her)

It is obvious that my brother loves her.

A PP may function as a predicate to /?inna/(indeed) or to one of its class category, as in:

35. /?inna ?alfallaaha fii ?al₁haqli/

(Indeed the farmer in the field)

The farmer is in the field.

or similarly,

36. /ʔinna fii ʔalḥaqli fallaḥan/

(indeed in the field a farmer)

There is a farmer in the field.

Sometimes, a PP may function as a predicate to the particle /laa/(no), as in:

37. /laa rajula fii ʔalbayti/

(no man in the house)

There is no man in the house.

It may also function as a subject of the passive verb, as in:

38. /qubida 9alaa ʔallissi/

(caught on the thief)

The thief was caught.

In a verbal sentence, however, a PP functions differently. If the PP follows an indefinite noun, it functions as an adverbial of place, as in:

39. /raʔaytu rajulan fii sayyaaratihi/

(saw I a man in car his)

I saw a man in his car.

If the preceding noun is definite, the PP functions as an adjective as in:

40. /raʔaytu ʔalrajula fii sayyaaratihi/

(saw I the man on horse his)

I saw the man on his horse.

This analysis follows the prescriptive rule in Arabic which states that "after definite nouns come adjectives and after indefinite nouns

come adverbials".

With certain verbs, a PP may function as a substitute for the direct object. Compare the following two examples:

41a. /sakantu ?aldaara/

(lived I the house)

I lived in the house.

41b. /sakantu fii ?aldaari/

(lived I in the house)

I lived in the house.

The above two sentences are semantically similar and they are both acceptable on the syntactic level. The word /?aldaara/ in the first sentence and the PP in the second sentence function quite similarly as a direct object to the verb /sakana/. If the verb /sakana/ is changed into another verb that cannot function similarly, the deletion of the preposition will result in a nonsensical sentence. Consider the following two examples:

42. /la9ibnaa fii ?aldaari/

(played we in the house)

We played in the house.

43. */la9ibnaa ?aldaara/

(played we the house)

*We played the house.

A PP may function as a predicate to the verb /kaana/(was, were), as in:

44. /kaana ?alwaladu fii ?algurfati/

(was the boy in room his)

The boy was in his room.

If the PP begins with the preposition /laam/(for), it functions as /maf9uul li?ajlihi gayr sariih/ "a vague object for itself", as in:

45. /saafartu li?al9ilmi/

(travelled I for science)

I travelled for science.

A PP may function as /maf9uul mutlaq/(absolute object), as in:

46. /jaraa ?alfarasu ka?alriihi/

(ran the horse as the wind)

The horse ran as the wind.

It may also function as /maf9uul bihi gayr sariih/(vague object), as in:

47. /marartu bi?alqawmi/

(passed I by the people)

I passed by the people.

Finally, a sentence in Arabic may have more than one verb in succession, a situation that does not exist in English. In this case, the PP should be related properly to only one of these preceding verbs. The improper choice of the relation between a verb and a PP will render the sentence semantically unacceptable. Compare the following three examples:

48a. /jalasnaa natahaddaøu fii ?umuurin muhimmatin/

(sat talking we in matters important)

We sat talking about important matters.

48b. /natahaddaøu fii ?umuurin muhimmatin/

(talking we in matters important)

we were talking about important matters.

48c.*/jalasnaa fii ?umuurin muhimmatin/

(sat we in matters important)

*We sat in important matters.

It is obvious that the PP /fii ?muurin/ is pertinently related to the verb /nataḥaddaʔu/ and not to /jalasnaa/. Sentence (48c) is semantically unacceptable because the verb /jalasnaa/ is not capable of entering appropriately into construction with the PP. However, in some other contexts, it happens that both preceding verbs are capable of entering appropriately into construction with the PP following them. Consider the following examples:

49a. /jalasnaa nataḥaddaʔu fii ?albayti/

(sat we talking in the house)

We sat talking in the house.

49b. /jalasnaa fii ?albayti/

(sat we in the house)

We sat in the house.

49c. /nataḥaddaʔu fii ?albayti/

(talk we in the house)

We talk in the house.

One of the outstanding features of PPs in Arabic is that they immediately follow the lexical items they modify. Cantarino (1975: 86) describes the possible lexical items a PP in Arabic can modify, as follows:

a. a noun

50. /?al?azhaaru fii ?alḥadiiqati/

(the flowers in the garden)

The flowers are in the garden.

2. an adjective

51. /qaraʔtu kitaaban baʕiidan ʔan ?alwaaqi9iyyati/

(read I a book far away from reality)

I read a book which was far away from reality.

3. an elative

52. /huwa ʔakbaru min zaydin bisanatayni/

(he older from Zayd in two years)

He is two years older than Zayd.

4. a verbal noun

53. /yuriidu ʔalxuruuja min ʔalbayti/

(want he the going out from the house)

He wants to go out of the house.

5. an adverb

54. /ʔalraʔiisu hunaa fii bagdaada/

(the president here in Baghdad)

The president is here in Baghdad.

6. another PP

55. /qaabalahu ba9da majiiʔihi bisaa9atayni/

(met he him after arrival his in two hours/

He met him two hours after his arrival.

5.9. Preposition Complements

Preposition complements function differently according to the kind of prepositions they follow. Complements governed by original prepositions cannot function singly since they form with the preceding prepositions semi-sentences which function as one unit. The previous section has dealt with all the possible functions that a semi-sentence (PP) may perform. On the other hand, a complement can function alone if it is preceded by one of the other two kinds of prepositions, i.e. extra and semi-extra prepositions. A noun governed by one of the extra prepositions, though it has the genitive ending, is considered to be

in the nominative case and can function as:

1. an agent

56. /maa zaaranaa min ?hadin/

(not visited us from one)

Nobody visited us.

The omission of the preposition will change the case of the complement from the genitive into the nominative, e.g.

57. /maa zaaranaa ?ahadun/

(not visited us one)

Nobody visited us.

2. a subject of a passive verb

58. /maa qiila min }ay?in/

(not was said from a thing)

Nothing was said.

The sentence without the preposition is:

59. /maa qiila }ay?un/

(not was said a thing/

Nothing was said.

In certain contexts, a noun governed by one of these kinds of prepositions should be in the accusative case if it functions as:

1. an object

60. /maa ra?aytu min ?ahadin/

(not saw I from one)

I haven't seen any one.

The sentence after the omission of the preposition will be as follows:

61. /maa ra?aytu ?hadan/

(not saw I one)

I haven't seen any one.

2. an absolute object

62. /maa 9amila min ʃayʔin yuhmadu 9alayhi/

(not he did from a thing he is thanked on it)

He has done nothing to be thanked for.

The sentence without the preposition /min/ is as follows:

63. /maa 9amila ʃayʔan yuhmadu 9alayhi/

(not he did a thing he is thanked on it)

He has done nothing to be thanked for.

3. a predicate of /laysa/(not)

64. /ʔalaysa ʔallaahu biʔahkami ʔalhaakimiin?/

(Is not God in wisest the rulers?)

Isn't God the wisest ruler?

Without /bi/ the sentence will be:

65. /ʔalaysa ʔallaahu ʔahkama ʔalhaakimiin?/

(Is not God wisest the rulers?)

Isn't God the wisest ruler?

If, on the other hand, a noun is governed by one of the semi-extra prepositions /9adaa/, /xalaa/ and /haaʃaa/ (which all mean "except"), then the noun has to be in the accusative case, since the idea of exception in Arabic demands the accusative case. Consider the following example:

66. /jaaʔa ʔaltullaabu 9adaa xaalidan/

(came the pupils except Khalid)

All the pupils came except Khalid.

If the semi-extra preposition /rubba/ is used, the noun following it will function either as a subject in the nominative case (67) or as

an object, in the accusative case, of a transitive verb that does not take its normal object (68):

67. /rubba ganiyyin ?alyawma faqiirun gadan/

(may be a rich person today a poor one tomorrow)

A rich person today may be a poor one tomorrow.

68. /rubba rajulin kariimin ?akramta/

(may be a man generous honour you)

You may have honoured a generous man!

The kinds of complements that prepositions can govern are the following:

1. a noun

69. /tuujadu hadiiqatun sagiiratun waraa?a ?albayti/

(is a garden small behind the house)

There is a small garden behind the house.

2. a pronominal form whether demonstrative (70), interrogative (71), or relative (72):

70. /saafarnaa bihaata ?alqitaari/

(travelled we by this train)

We travelled by this train.

71. /min ?ayna ji?ta?/

(from where came you?)

Where did you come from?

72. /?ibta9id 9an allatiina yakrahuunaka/

(keep away from those who they hate you)

Keep away from those who hate you.

3. an adjective

73. /9an qariibin satakuuna ?aban/

(shortly will you be father)

You will be a father soon.

4. an adverb

74. /laa na9lamu ?ilaa ?ayna tahaba/

(not we know to where went he)

We do not know where he went.

5. a sentence

75. /?intadara hattaa jaa?a ?abuuhu/

(he waited until came father his)

He waited until his father came.

As the above mentioned examples clearly show, a preposition in Arabic always immediately precedes its complement. Hassan (1973: 430) asserts that in a few contexts, the negative particle /laa/ can separate a preposition from its complement, as in:

76. /gaadartu bilaa ta?axxurin/

(left I with no delay)

I left without delay.

5.10. Overlapping of Arabic Prepositions

A well-known fact among Arab grammarians is that prepositions in Arabic are often interchangeable. However, there seem to be two opinions presented by the two famous Arab grammar schools, "AlBasriyyuun" and "AlKufiyyuun". The first school, AlBasriyyuun, asserts that a preposition should denote one basic meaning, and that all the other meanings conveyed by the same preposition, other than its basic one, are figurative. Consequently, according to this opinion, prepositions are not interchangeable. Thus, the idea of "separation" must be conveyed only by the preposition /9an/, "elevation" only by /9alaa/, "close to" only by /duuna/ and so on. To

illustrate this fact, the following two examples are given below:

77. /kaana ?alkitaabu 9alaa ?almaktabi/

(was the book on the table)

The book was on the table.

78. /ʃakartu ?alrajula 9alaa ?ihsaaninhi/

(thanked I the man on benevolence his)

I thanked the man for his benevolence.

In the first sentence, the preposition /9alaa/ is used to convey its basic meaning, i.e. elevation. In the second example, the preposition /9alaa/ is said to be used figuratively since it does not convey this meaning. According to this opinion, the preposition /laam/ should be used instead of /9alaa/ since its basic meaning is to express "cause" or "reason". Therefore, sentence (79) should be as follows:

79. /ʃakartu ?alrajula li?ihsaanihi/

(thanked I the man for benevolence his)

I thanked the man for his benevolence.

The other grammar school, i.e. "Alkufiyyuun", presents a different opinion. The followers of this school state that, since a preposition is a word, it can, like other words, denote more than one meaning. According to them, the meanings expressed by a certain preposition are all basic and not figurative since they are widely used as well as being easily understood. To illustrate this opinion, the following examples show clearly the capability of the preposition /min/ to denote different basic meanings:

80. /jaaʔat ?albintu min ?almdrasati/

(came the girl from school)

The girl came from school.

81. /faqadtu maa 9indii min nuquud/

(lost I what at me from money)

I lost the money I had.

82. /kudtu ?amuutu min ?allama?i/

(was about I die from thirst)

I almost died of thirst.

83. /?iftaraytu kaøiiran min haatihi ?alsuwari/

(bought I much from these pictures)

I bought a lot of these pictures.

The basic meanings conveyed by the preposition /min/ in the above examples are: "the starting point of a journey", "the genus", "cause", and "portion of" successively.

On the other hand, a particular meaning can be expressed by different prepositions. In the following three examples, the same meaning, i.e. "cause", is expressed by the prepositions /min/, /fii/, /bii/, and /9alaa/:

84. /bakaa min fiddati ?al?alami/

(cried he from severity the pain)

He cried because of the severity of the pain.

85. /daxala ?alsijna fii jariimatin ?iqtarafahaa/

(entered he the prison in a crime committed it he)

He entered prison because of a crime he committed.

86. /maata bi?aljuu9i/

(died he in starvation)

He died because of starvation.

87. /fukirat 9alaa musaa9adatihaa/

(was thanked she on help her)

She was thanked for her help.

The second opinion, the present writer believes, is more logical than the first one, since it is quite natural for any word to express more than one basic meaning. Moreover, linguistically speaking, a meaning can be considered a basic one if it is widely used and easily understood by people.

5.11. Omission of Prepositions

The phenomenon of the deletion of prepositions, which is optional in most cases, is very common in the Arabic language in the interests of achieving a more concise and rhetorical style. According to Hassan (1973: 532) and Algalaayiini (1973: 193) a preposition may be deleted in the following contexts:

1. If the preposition /rubba/ immediately follows the particles /bal/(but), /fa/(and) and /wa/(and), e.g.

88a. /bal (rubba) ḥaziinin qad taʿassa biḥaziinin/

(but (may be) a sad person complained in a sad person)

But two sad persons may complain to each other.

88b. /fa (rubba) muḥibbin qaḍaa ʿallayla saahiran/

(and (may be) a lover spent the night awake)

And a lover might have spent the night awake.

88c. /wa (rubba) mujrimin qaḍaa ḥayaatahu sajiinan/

(and (may be) a criminal spent life his prisoner)

And a criminal might have spent his life in prison.

2. When the preposition precedes a sentence beginning with /ʿan/(that) as in:

89. /waafaqtu (ʿalaa) ʿan ʿathaba/

(agreed I (on) that I go)

I agreed to go.

3. If the preposition immediately follows the interrogative particle /kam/(how much; how many), as in:

90. /bikam (min) dinaarin ?i]tarayta baytaka?/

(by how many (from) dinars bought you house your?)

How many dinars did you pay for your house?

4. When the preposition with its complement constitutes an answer to a question containing the same deleted preposition, as in:

91a. /?ilaa ayyi baladin saafarta?/

(to which country travelled you?)

To which country did you travel?

91b. /(?ilaa) miḡra/

((to) Egypt)

To Egypt.

5. If the preposition with its complement immediately follows the conjunction particle (wa) and the preceding sentence contains the same preposition, as in:

92. /fakkir fii 9aa?ilatika wa (fii) mustaqbalika/

(think in family your and (in) future you)

Think of your family and your future.

6. When the preposition immediately follows the interrogative particle /?a/ in a question asked about a statement containing the same preposition, as in:

93a. /saafara ma9a zaydin/

(travelled he with Zayd)

He travelled with Zayd.

93b. /?a (ma9a) zaydin ?alnajjaari?/

(is (with) Zayd the carpenter?)

Is it with Zayd, the carpenter?

7. If the PP is immediately preceded by /hallaa/(could it be) and the same preposition is mentioned in the preceding sentence, as in:

94a. /sa?atasaddaqu bidiinaarin/

(will I donate by a dinar)

I will donate a dinar.

94b. /hallaa (bi)9a[rati danaaniir/

(could it be(by) ten dinars)

Could it be ten dinars?

8. When the preposition /laam/ precedes the infinitive particle /kay/(in order to), as in:

95. /yadrusu ?al₁aalibu (li) kay yanjaha/

(study the student in order that he succeed)

A student studies to succeed.

9. If the verb can carry over its action to its object without the use of a preposition, e.g.

96a. /daxaltu fii ?algurfati/

(entered I in the room)

I entered the room.

96b. /daxaltu ?algurfata/

(entered I the room)

I entered the room.

If the object in the above example is not a place, the preposition cannot be deleted, e.g.

97. /daxaltu fii niqaa[₁in ma9ahu/

(entered I into a debate with him)

I entered into a debate with him.

Some Arab grammarians declare that, underlying each annexation structure, there is a preposition which is deleted in the surface

structure. Thus the sentence

98a. /haataa kitaabu 9aliyyin/

(this book Ali)

This is Ali's book.

has the following underlying structure which contains the preposition /laam/

98b. /haataa kitaabun li9aliyyin/

(this book to Ali)

This is a book for Ali.

5.12. Verb-Preposition Structure

In Arabic, unlike English, only a few prepositions, namely, /baa?/, /laam/, /fii/, /?ilaa/, /min/ and /9alaa/, have the capability of combining with verbs to form verb-preposition structures. Such constructions in Arabic exhibit characteristics similar to those of both phrasal verbs and prepositional verbs in English. In Arabic, however, tests to distinguish between the two kinds of constructions cannot be applied because all the above prepositions cannot occur without being followed by their complements. It seems that no attempts have been made by Arab grammarians to find an underlying system of rules which determines the use of prepositions in the environment of verbs. Attempts, however, have been made by non-native grammarians such as Cantarino and Wright to group verbs and prepositions together on the basis of semantic relations. Lentzer (1977: 163) seems not to be content with such analysis. She states:

Such analyses, while intuitively valid, are nonetheless restricted by two facts : first, such statements are only

generalities and cannot account for all instances of verb-preposition occurrence. Second, they are not precise enough to be able to predict which preposition will be used where.

Nevertheless, in Arabic, a distinction between two kinds of verb-preposition constructions should be made. The first kind is a construction where the verb and the preposition together denote a meaning which is different from the original meaning of both the verb and the preposition. In the following example:

99. /sammama 9alaa ?alnaajahi/

(decided he on success)

He decided to succeed.

the verb-preposition construction /sammama 9alaa/ means "decide", whereas the verb /sammama/ means "plan" and the preposition /9alaa/ means on. The second kind of construction is one where the preposition does not have any influence on the original meaning of the verb. In the following example:

100. /qubida 9alaa ?almujrimi/

(was caught on the criminal)

The criminal was caught.

the meaning of the verb-preposition construction /qabada 9alaa/ is quite similar to the meaning conveyed by the verb /qabada/ alone.

The following kinds of combination between verbs and the preposition /baa?/ are the most common ones for all Arabic prepositions though there are some differences among the above-mentioned prepositions concerning the kinds of verbs that each preposition, can combine with. The preposition /bi/ can combine with:

1. intransitive verbs that can use a preposition in construction with an NP, e.g.

101. /?ij̣tama9a bi?alṭullaabi/

(met he with the students)

He met with the students.

2. transitive verbs which use a preposition to mark a NP in particular syntactic relations, but which may occur without it in other contexts. Consider the following two examples:

102a. /sami9a bi?alxabari/

(heard he about the report)

He heard about the report.

102b. /sami9a sawtan/

(heard he a voice)

He heard a voice.

2. verbs that cannot occur without a preposition, e.g.

103. /raḥhaba bi?alḍiyuufi/

(welcomed he the guests)

He welcomed the guests.

4. verbs which use a preposition to mark the direct object, but which can be directly transitive with no change in meaning, e.g.

104. /bada?a ?alḥadiiḡa/ or /bada?a bi?alḥadiiḡi/

(started he the talk)

He started the talk.

5. Passive verbs which can combine with prepositions to mark an underlying agent or instrument, e.g.

105. /ta?aḡḡara bimu9allimihi/

(was influenced he by teacher his)

He was influenced by his teacher.

6. verbs which involve two NPs which are either marked by the use of two prepositions (106) or one preposition that has to be attached

to the second one (107):

106. /sumiḥa liʔalrajuli biʔalxuruuji/

(was allowed to the man with the going out)

The man was allowed to go out.

107. /ʔuqni9a ʔalrajula biʔalxuruuji/

(was convinced the man with the going out)

The man was convinced that he ought to go out.

The general survey in this chapter reveals the fact that there has been no serious attempt made by Arab grammarians to deal with the Arabic prepositional system. Most Arab grammarians are bound to those prescriptive rules and ideas stated by the first Arab grammarians such as Sibawayh, Alfarahidi and others more than a thousand years ago. This increases the difficulty of any researcher engaged in contrastive analysis. Similar difficulties occur in analysing any linguistic area in the Arabic language. Despite this, some contribution has been made by linguists who deal with the analysis of Arabic as a foreign language. They have tried to contribute to the analysis of Arabic grammar by applying the various methods developed for the analysis of a range of other languages. However, a good deal of work remains to be done in this area.

Chapter Six

Prepositions of Place Relation

6.1. Introduction

All Arab grammar books have dealt with Arabic prepositions individually, i.e. following the dictionary method. There is no serious attempt made by Arab linguists to group prepositions according to any semantic relation among them. Moreover, Arab grammarians, as previously mentioned (P.153), exclude many lexical items such as /tahta/(under) and /fawqa/(over, above), which are capable of denoting spatial senses in Arabic, from the preposition category by considering them as adverbs of place. To Arab grammarians only eight lexical items, namely, /baa?/, /laam/, /fii/, /9alaa/, /?ilaa/, /min/, /9an/ and /hattaa/, are considered prepositions of place relation.

To the present writer, however, the above lexical items and all the other ones which can denote spatial senses and behave identically to prepositions on the syntactic and semantic levels, are considered prepositions of place relation. Thus, to the best of the writer's knowledge, the following list, arranged alphabetically, includes all prepositions of place relation in Arabic:

- | | | | |
|------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------------|
| 1. ?izaa?a | 2. ?ilaa | 3. ?amaama | 4. ?asfala |
| 5. ?a9la | 6. baa? | 7. ba9da | 8. bayna |
| 9. bimuhaaataati | 10. tijaaha | 11. tahta | 12. janba |
| 13. januuba | 14. hattaa | 15. hitaa?a | 16. hawla |
| 17. xaarija | 18. xilaala | 19. xalfa | 20. daaxila |
| 21. duuna | 22. Jarqa | 23. Jimaala | 24. tuula/tiwaala |
| 25. 9abra | 26. ?a9alaa | 27. 9an | 28. 9inda |

29. garba	30. fawqa	31. fii	32. qubaala/qubaalata
33. qabla	34. quddaama	35. qurba	36. laam
37. min	38. nahwa	39. waraa?a	40. was <u>t</u> a
41. yasaara	42. yamiina		

As will be shown in this section, prepositions considered by Arab grammarians as "true" can denote far more numerous meanings than those considered as adverbs of place.

As for the compound prepositions of place relation, Arab grammar often allows the preposition /min/ to precede other prepositions in order to indicate the starting point of a movement (P.13). Sometimes, the prepositions /?ilaa/, /laam/, /baa?/ and /fii/ can combine with some other prepositions to form compound prepositions. Table 1 shows the possible occurrence of compound prepositions of place relation in Arabic.

The single prepositions mentioned above will be divided into two main categories. The first category includes "true" prepositions and the other one includes those prepositions considered by Arab grammarians as adverbs of place. The reasoning underlying this division is that prepositions of the first category are more widely used than the other ones which can denote only one or two senses.

Prepositions of the first category are divided into three sub-categories. The first one includes prepositions denoting location, a meaning which can also be conveyed by all prepositions of the second main group. The other two sub-categories include prepositions that indicate "direction to" and "direction from", as shown in the following table:

Compound Prepositions

Preposition	Prepositions Added				
	min	baa?	fii	?ilaa	laam
?amaami	x				
?a9laa	x				
?asfali	x				
ba9di	x				
bayni	x				
tahti	x				
janbi	x	x			
januubi	x	x	x	x	x
hawli	x				
xaariji	x	x	x	x	x
xilaali	x				
xalfi	x				
daaxili	x	x		x	x
duuni	x	x			
farqi	x	x	x	x	x
fimaali	x	x	x	x	x
9alaa	x				
9indi	x				
garbi	x	x	x	x	x
fawqi	x				
qurbi	x	x			
waraa?i	x				
was ti	x		x		
yasaari	x		x		
yamiini	x		x		

Table 1

6.2. Category One

Group A. "Locative" Prepositions: /baa?/; /fii/; /9alaa/

Group B. "Direction to" Prepositions: /?ilaa/; /laam/; /hattaa/

Group C. "Direction from" Prepositions: /min/; /9an/

The senses conveyed by each preposition are classified into two sub-categories; the first one includes the preposition's spatial senses whereas the other one deals with all its other senses.

6.2.1. Group A. Locative Prepositions: /baa?/; /fii/; /9alaa/

6.2.1.1. /baa?/ (at, in, on, by, with, on, of, for)

Arab grammarians attribute numerous meanings to this preposition.

The following are the most important:

A) Spatial senses

a. location in a place

1. /maata naasir bimisra/

(died Nasir in Egypt)

Nasir died in Egypt.

b. proximity

2. /marartu bidaarihi/

(passed I by house his)

I passed by his house.

B) Other senses

a. time

3. /maataa hadaøa bi?al?amsi?/

(what happened in yesterday?)

What happened yesterday?

b. attachment

4. /ʔamsaka ʔalʃurtiyyu biʔallissi/

(caught the policeman the thief)

The policeman caught the thief.

c. accompaniment

5. /saafara biri9aayati ʔallaahi/

(travelled he with protection God)

He travelled with God's protection.

d. agency

6. /qutila biʔalsayfi/

(was killed he by the sword)

He was killed by the sword.

e. means of transport

7. /saʔusaafiru biʔalqitaari/

(will I travel by the train)

I 'll travel by train.

f. cause

8. /maata ʔaltiflu biʔalmaradi/

(died the baby by the illness)

The baby died of the illness.

g. requital

9. /ʔiʃtaraytu kitaaban bi9aʃrati danaaniir/

(bought I book for ten dinars)

I bought a book for ten dinars.

h. swearing

10. /ʔaqsamtu biʔallaahi/

(swore I by the God)

I swore by God.

i. the way things are sold or bought

11. /yubaa9u ?altahinu bi?al?akyaasi/

(is sold the flour in the bags)

Flour is sold in bags.

The preposition /baa?/ can act as a transitivizing particle which serves to convert intransitive verbs of motion into transitive verbs of transport. This function is referred to by Arab grammarians as /baa? ?alta9diya/(transitive /baa?/) or /baa? ?alnaql/(transport /baa?/). (See Hassan, 1973: 490; Haywood, 1970: 413.)

In classical written Arabic, /baa?/ is used to indicate the idea of "redemption". This /baa?/ is called in Arabic /baa? ?altafdiyah/(/baa?/ of redemption), e.g.

12. /bi?abii ?anta/

(by my father you)

I redeem you by my father.

6.2.1.2. /fii/ (in, at)

The preposition /fii/ derives, as stated by Cantarino (1975: 309), from the expression /bifii/, meaning "in the mouth" or "in the midst of". Arab grammarians attribute a large number of meanings or uses to this preposition and the following are the most common:

A) Spatial senses

a. location in, within or inside a place, e.g.

13. /?altullaabu fii ?almdrasati/

(the students in the school)

The students are in the school.

b. motion into a place

14. /xarajtu fii ?alhuquuli ?amsi/

(went out I in the fields yesterday)

I went out into the fields yesterday.

c. superiority

15. /saaha ?alguraabu fii ?alma?tanati/

(croaked the crow in the minaret)

The crow croaked in the minaret.

d. attachment

16. /?alhaarisu waaqifun fii ?albaabi/

(the guard standing in the gate)

The guard is standing at the gate.

B) Other senses

a. time

17. /sa?azuuruhu fii ?alsabahi/

(will I visit him in the morning)

I 'll visit him in the morning.

b. cause

18. /daxalat ?alsijna fii jariimatin ?irtakabathaa/

(entered she the prison in a crime committed it she)

She was imprisoned because of a crime that she committed.

c. the meaning "per" or "for"

19. /nusaafiru marratayni fii ?alsanati/

(travel we twice in the year)

We travel twice a year.

d. distribution

20. /farraga ?almaliku ?alganaa?ima fii ?alnaasi/

(distributed the king the spoils in the people)

The king distributed the spoils among the people.

Figuratively, the preposition /fii/ can introduce the situation, state or condition in which the subject exists at the time of the action, e.g.

21. /nahnu lasnaa fii haajatin ?ilayhim/

(we not in need to them)

We have no need for them.

And also the action in which the subject is involved, e.g.

22. /bada?a fii tagyiiri malaabisihi/

(began he in changing clothes his)

He began to change his clothes.

6.2.1.3. /9alaa/ (on, upon, over, above)

Some classical Arab grammarians, like Siibawayh, did not consider /9alaa/ as a true preposition since it functions as a noun when it is preceded by another preposition (See 3.2). Moreover, /9alaa/ still has a clear connection with the the Arabic root /9alaa/ as a verb meaning "to be high" or "to rise". However, most Arab grammarians now list /9alaa/ as one of the true prepositions. The following are the most common meanings that /9alaa/ can convey:

A) Spatial senses

a. superiority

23. /jalastu 9alaa ?alkursiyyi/

(sat I on the chair)

I sat on the chair.

b. a recipient of an activity

24. /safa9tuhu 9alaa wajhihi/

(hit I him on face his)

I hit him on the face.

c. the place where something is situated

25. /taqa9u bagdaadu 9alaa dijlata/

(stand Baghdad on Tigris)

Baghdad stands on the Tigris.

d. motion towards the upper surface of an object

26. /qafaza ?alrajula 9alaa ?alhisaani/

(jumped the man on the horse)

The man jumped onto the horse.

B) Other senses

a. time

27. /wasala 9alaa hiini gaflatin/

(arrived he on time unawareness)

He arrived unexpectedly.

b. reason

28. /ʃakarnaahu 9alaa tabarru9ihi/

(thanked we him on donation his)

We thanked him for his donation.

c. surpassing or increasing

29. /zaada 9adadu ?alhaadiriina 9alaa ?alfi rajulin/

(increased number the attenders on thousand man)

The number of the men who attended was above one thousand.

d. the idea of distribution

30. /wazza9a 9arwatahu 9alaa ?abnaa?ihi/

(distributed he wealth his on sons his)

He distributed his wealth among his sons.

e. domination

31. /lahum haqqu ?alsiyaadati 9alaa haatihi ?al?ardi/

(to them right the domination on this land)

They have the right to rule this land.

f. power

32. /laayaqdiru 9alaa taalika/

(not he his power on that)

He cannot do that.

g. the idea of obligation

33. /yajibu 9alayka ?an tatamarrana/

(is incumbent on you that you practice)

You must practice.

h. decision

34. /sammama 9alaa ?alnajaahi/

(decided he on the success)

He decided to succeed.

i. the meaning of "in spite of"

35a. /?ahabbuuhu 9alaa taalika/

(loved they him on that)

They loved him in spite of that.

or

35b. /?ahabbuuhu 9alaa ?alragmi min taalika?/

(loved they him in spite of that)

They loved him in spite of that.

j. hostility

36. /xarajuu 9alaa ?almaliki/

(went out they on the king)

They went out (to war) against the king.

and also with verbs denoting anger, e.g.

37. /gadaba ?almu9allimu 9alaa talaamiihi/

(was angry the teacher on pupils his)

The teacher was angry with his pupils.

1. the meaning "to urge" or "to incite"

38. /haððani 9alaa ?alnajaahi/

(urged he me on the success)

He urged me to succeed.

6.2.2. Group B. "Direction to" Prepositions: /?ilaa/, /laam/, /hattaa/

6.2.2.1. /?ilaa/ (to, toward(s))

A) **Spatial senses:** this preposition is the one most frequently used in Arabic to indicate "direction to" in spatial contexts. It is often used to indicate:

a. destination

39. /tahaba ?ilaa ?almdrasati/

(went he to the school) .

He went to school.

b. the place reached after the idea of motion has been completed

40. /ba9da taalika jalasat ?ilaa maktabihaa/

(after that sat she to desk her)

After that, she sat at her desk.

c. the meaning "in the direction of"

41. /saadafahu wahuwa fii tariiqihi ?ilaa ?almasjidi/

(met he him and he in way his to the mosque)

He met him while he was on his way to the mosque.

d. the meaning "to pass by"

42. /marartu ?ilaa jaanibi ?almuṣalliina/

(went by I to side the people praying)

I went by the people praying.

B. Other senses

a. time

43. /sayabqaa haakataa ?ilaa matla9i ?alfajri/

(will he stay so until daybreak)

He will stay so until daybreak.

b. a person or a thing to which an activity is directed

44. /sa?atahaddaøu ?ilaa ?almu9allimi 9an taalika/

(will I talk to the teacher about that)

I 'll talk to the teacher about that.

c. the meaning "beside"

45. /wahafiija ?ilaa taalika ?alqur?aana kullahu/

(memorized he to that the Koran all of it)

Besides that, he memorized the Koran.

d. an action as the intended aim

46. /da9aahu ?ilaa ?aljuluusi/

(invited he him to the sitting down)

He invited him to sit down.

6.2.2.2. /laam/ (to, in order to, for)

Arab grammarians attribute many meanings to the preposition /laam/, which approximates to the preposition /?ilaa/ in meaning and use. Lentzer (1977: 72) states that it has been proposed that there is some historical connection between /laam/ and /?ilaa/ in view of their semantic and phonological similarity. The following are some of the most common meanings denoted by /laam/:

A) **Spatial senses:** this preposition has only one spatial sense and it is often replaced by the preposition /?ilaa/ since /?ilaa/ is more frequently used to indicate "direction towards a place", e.g.

47. /gaadara ʔalraʔiisu ʔilaa/libagdaad/

(left the president to/for Baghdad)

The president left for Baghdad.

B. Other senses

a. time

48. /raʔaytuhu lilmarrati ʔalʔuulaa/

(saw I him for the time first)

I saw him for the first time.

b. possession

49. /haaʔaa ʔaldaaru lizaydin/

(this the house for Zayd)

This is Zayd's house/the house of Zayd.

c. specification

50. /ʔalnajaahu lilmuʕaabiriin/

(the success for the hardworking people)

Success is for hardworking people.

d. comparison when used after an elative

51. /ʕaliyyun ʔahabbu lii min saʕiidin/

(Ali more like to me from Saʕid)

I like Ali more than Saʕid.

e. purpose or cause

52. /qumtu limusaaʕaditihi/

(rose I to help him)

I rose to help him.

f. imprecation

53. /yaabuʔsa liʔalharbi/

(damn to the war)

Damn war.

g. surprise

54. /yaa lil9ajabi/

(O, for wonder)

O, wonder.

h. the author of a book

55. /ʔiʃtaraytu qisasa ʔalʔanbiyaa? liʔalʔa9labi/

(bought I stories the Prophets of ʔalTha9labi)

I bought "The Stories of the Prophets" of ʔalTha9labi.

6.2.2.3. /hattaa/ (up to, until)

In Arabic, the word /hattaa/ has two functions, namely, as a preposition and as a conjunction. The distinction between the two is designated by the case marker of the following word. Consider the following examples:

56a. /ʔakaltu ʔalsamakata hattaa raʔsihaa/

(ate I the fish up to head its)

I ate the fish up to its head.

56b. /ʔakaltu ʔalsamakata hattaa raʔsahaa/

(ate I the fish even head its)

I ate the fish including its head.

In the first example, the word /hattaa/ is a preposition since it genitivizes the word /raʔsi/, whereas /hattaa/ in the second example is a conjunction because the word following it is in the accusative case. Semantically speaking, the word /hattaa/ is used to denote either the meaning "up to but not including" or "up to and including". Arab grammarians have made a distinction between the two instances. They state that /hattaa/ conveys the meaning "up to and including" if its complement semantically constitutes a part of the noun preceding

it (57). If, on the other hand, its complement does not form a part of the noun preceding it, the meaning indicated by /hattaa/ is "up to but not including" (58):

57. /ʔanfaqtu maalii hattaa ʔaldinaari ʔalʔaxiiri/

(spent I money my up to the dinar the last)

I spent my money up to the last dinar.

58. /numtu ʔallaylata hattaa ʔalsabaahi/

(slept I the night until the morning)

I slept through the night until morning.

A) **Spatial senses:** the preposition, /hattaa/ has only the following spatial sense: direction to

59. /tanaqqaltu fii ʔalhadiiqati hattaa ʔalbaabi/

(walked (a)round I in the garden up to the gate)

I walked (a)round the garden up to its gate.

B) **Other senses:** this preposition has only the temporal sense: direction to (in time)

60. /sayabqaa sajiinan hattaa ʔalmawti/

(will remain he prisoner until the death)

He will remain in prison until death.

6.2.3. Group C. "Direction from" Prepositions: /min/; /ʔan/

6.2.3.1. /min/ (from, of)

The preposition /min/ is of extremely high frequency in Arabic. It is often used to denote spatial as well as other senses. The following are the most common:

A) **Spatial senses**

a. the source or beginning of motion away from a location in space

61. /jaaʔa ʔalfallaahu min ʔalqaryati/

(came the farmer from the village)

The farmer came from the village.

b. nearness

62. /danawtu min ?almaktabati/

(was close I from the library)

I approached the library.

c. the meaning "to go out" from a place

63. /xaraja min ?alxaymati/

(went out he from the tent)

He went out from the tent.

d. separation

64. /gaadara min haatihi ?almahattati/

(left he from this the station)

He left from this station.

B) Other senses

a. time

65. /sa?antadirahu min ?alsabaahi ?ilaa ?almasaa?i/

(will I wait him from the morning to the evening)

I am going to wait for him from morning till evening.

It is sometimes used to convey the meaning of "since", "for" or "ago", e.g.

66. /maata zawjuhaa min 9a[ri sanawaatin/

(died husband her from ten years)

Her husband died ten years ago.

b. partition or division

67. /xut min haatihi ?alkutubi maata[aa?/

(take from these the books what you like)

Take what you like from these books.

c. elucidation of kind

68. /ʔiʃtarat siwaaran min ʔahabin/

(bought she a bracelet from gold)

She bought a bracelet of gold.

d. emphasis

69. /hal min xaaliqin gayru ʔallaahi/

(is from a creator other than God?)

Is there a creator other than God?

e. comparison when following an elative :

70. /muḥammad ʔakbaru min ʔaxiihi/

(Muhammad older from brother his)

Muhammad is older than his brother.

f. the origin of a person or a thing

71. /ʔinnahu min ʔabin lubnaaniyyin/

(that he from a father Lebanese)

His father is from Lebanon.

6.2.3.2. /9an/ (from, away from)

As with /9alaa/, some Arab grammarians state that /9an/ can function both as a preposition and as a noun since it is sometimes preceded by the preposition /min/. But, by most other grammarians, /9an/ is considered a true preposition. Basically, as stated by Cantarino (1975: 276), this preposition is used in Arabic to designate a complete separation. Wright (1977: 139) asserts that /9an/ is a preposition that designates distance from, motion away from, departure from a place or from beside a person. The following are the most common meanings denoted by /9an/:

A) Spatial senses

a. the meaning "away from"

72. /ʔibtaʔid 9an haʔtaa ʔalmakaani/

(go away from this the place)

Go away from this place.

b. the meaning "from"

73. /ʔazaalat ʔalhijaaba 9an wajhihaa/

(removed she the veil from face her)

She removed the veil from her face.

c. separation from a point in a space

74. /dufina fii maqbaratin baʔiidatin 9an ʔalmadiinati/

(was buried he in a graveyard far from the city)

He was buried in a graveyard far from the city.

d. nearness

75. /jalastu 9an yamiinihi/

(sat I from right his)

I sat to his right.

B) Other senses

a. time

76. /saʔazuuraka 9an qariibin/

(will visit I you from soon)

I 'll visit you soon.

b. reason

77. /9amila haʔtaa 9an jahlin/

(did he that from ignorance)

He did that from ignorance.

c. the meaning "instead of"

78. /qum 9annii bihaafa ?al?amri/

(do from me in this job)

Do this instead of me.

d. the source from which something proceeds

79. /wari?a haafaa 9an waalidihi/

(inherited he this from father his)

He inherited this from his father.

e. the meaning "about"

80. /?alla yuhaddi?unii 9anka saa9atan/

(went on he speaking about you an hour)

He went on speaking about you for an hour.

The preposition /9an/ is sometimes preceded by /min/ to form a compound preposition which can denote, as stated by Lane (1955: 2156), the beginning of a space between two limits, e.g.

81. /haraba ?allissu min 9an yasaarika/

(ran away the thief from of left you)

The thief ran away from your left.

6.3. Category Two

Prepositions of this group are classified into sub-groups according to the semantic relations among them. The present writer believes that the procedure followed above when dealing with the English prepositions, i.e. the alphabetic order of presentation, is not applicable in this section because most of the prepositions within each group are identical when denoting their spatial senses. Thus, to avoid repetition, the present writer follows a different approach. It is worth stating that all the following prepositions, considered by

all Arab grammarians as adverbs of place, can only indicate the location where the action takes place. They cannot indicate motion unless they are preceded by another preposition which indicates that motion. Moreover, it is worth mentioning that on some occasions the same location can be denoted by more than one Arabic preposition while, at the same time, an Arabic preposition can convey the meaning of more than one preposition in English.

6.3.1. Group A /ʔamaama/; /quddaama/; /qubaala/; /qubaalata/
/ʔizaaʔa/; /tijaaha/; /hiʔaaʔa/

(in front of, before, opposite, ahead of)

A) Spatial senses

Though the above prepositions are interchangeable in most contexts, the preposition /ʔamaama/ is the most frequently used, especially, in spoken Arabic. All these prepositions can be used to indicate the meaning in front of/before/opposite, e.g.

82. /waqafa ʔalmu9allimu (ʔamaama/quddaama/qubaala/
qubaalata/ʔizaaʔa/tijaaha/hiʔaaʔa) ʔalsaffi/

(stood the teacher in front of the class)

The teacher stood in front of the class.

To indicate the meaning ahead of, the preposition /ʔamaama/ is generally used, e.g.

83. /hunaaka sayyaaratun qadiimatun ʔamaamanaa/

(there a car old ahead of us)

There is an old car ahead of us.

The compound preposition /min ʔamaami/ is generally used with dynamic verbs to indicate movement. However, the preposition /ʔamaama/ is often used instead to indicate the same meaning. Thus, the

following two sentences are semantically identical:

84a. /marra ?alra?iisu min ?amaami baytinaa/

(passed the president from in front of house our)

The president passed in front of our house.

84b. /marra ?alra?iisu ?amaama baytinaa/

(passed the president in front of house our)

The president passed in front of our house.

B) Other senses: of the above mentioned prepositions, only /?amaama/, /?izaa?a/ and /tijaaha/ can be used idiomatically, e.g.

85. /laysa ?amaamahu ?ixtiyaarun/ or /laa ?ixtiyaara ?amaamahu/

(no before him choice)

He has no choice.

86. /maataa sanaf9alu tijaaha/?izaa?a haatihi ?al?ahdaaøi/

(what shall do we opposite these events)

What are we going to do concerning these events?

6.3.2. Group B /?a9laa/ (up); /?asfala/ (down)

A) Spatial senses: these two prepositions are used within the same spatial dimension as direct opposites. Thus while the preposition /?a9laa/ is used to convey the idea "being at a higher level", the preposition /?asfala/ is used to convey the idea "being at a lower level". Consider the following example:

87. /makaøuu tawiilan ?a9laa ?aljabali/

(stayed they long up the mountain)

They stayed for a long time up the mountain.

To indicate the idea of movement to a higher/lower level, the compound preposition /?ilaa ?a9laa/?asfali/ is used, e.g.

88. /tahaba ?aljamii9u ?ilaa ?a9laa/?asfali ?altalli/

(went they all to up/down the hill)

All of them went up/down the hill.

B) Other senses: of the two prepositions /ʔa9laa/ is used figuratively to denote the meaning "higher than in status", e.g.

89. /huwa ʔa9laa minhum manzilatan/

(he above from them rank)

He is above them in rank.

If we want to denote the meaning "lower than in rank", the preposition /ʔadnaa/ is used, e.g.

90. /huwa ʔadnaa minhum manzilatan/

(he lower from them rank)

He is lower than them in rank.

6.3.3. Group C /bayna/; /wasta/

6.3.3.1. /bayna/ (between, among, in the midst of)

A) Spatial senses: the preposition /bayna/ is used to denote only one spatial sense, namely, the location of an object between two (103a) or more objects(103b):

91a. /taqa9u madiinati bayna jabalayni/

(situated town my between mountain two)

My town is situated between two mountains.

91b. /taqa9u madiinati bayna ʔaljibaali/

(situated town my between the mountains)

My town is situated among the mountains.

B) Other senses

a. time

92. /intaʔartuhu bayna ʔalsaa9ati ʔalxaamisati waʔalsaabi9ati/

(waited I him between the o'clock the five and the seven)

I waited for him between five and seven o'clock.

b. estimation of cost between two prices

93. /sayukallifu taḡliihihaa bayna ʔalxamsati waʔal9aʃrati danaaniir/

(will cost repair it between the five and the ten dinars)

Its repair will cost between five and ten dinars.

c. distribution

94. /qassama ʔalrajulu ʔarwatahu bayna ʔabnaaʔihi/

(divided the man wealth his between children his)

The man divided his wealth among his children.

d. co-operation

95. /ta9aawanuu fiimaa baynahum 9alaa jam9i ʔalmaali/

(helped they between them on collecting the money)

They helped each other to collect the money.

e. within a group of things

96. /wajadtu ʔalrisaalata bayna ʔalʔawraaqi/

(found I the letter between the papers)

I found the letter among the papers.

In Arabic, if the object of a preposition is two items, it is necessary to use the dual inflection. If, on other hand, it is more than two, then the plural inflection must be used, e.g.

97a. /kaana waaqifan bayna ʔaxawayhi/

(was he standing between brothers two his)

He was standing between his two brothers.

97b. /kaana waaqifan bayna ʔixwatihi/

(was he standing between brothers his)

He was standing among his brothers.

6.3.3.2. /wasta/ (in the central part, in the midst of, among)

A) Spatial senses

a. something situated in the central part of a location

98. /yuujadu mutanazzahun wasta ?almadiinati/

(there is a park in the middle/centre of the town)

There is a park in the middle/centre of the town.

2. amid(st); among

99. /waqafa ?alraa9i wasta ?agnaamihi/

(stood the shepherd amid(st)/among sheep his)

The shepherd stood amid(st)/among his sheep.

B) Other senses: none is recorded.

6.3.4. Group D /waraa?a/; /xalfa/ (behind; after)

6.3.4.1. /waraa?a/

A) Spatial senses

a. at the back of

100. /hunaaka hadiiqatun sa*g*iiratun waraa?a ?albayti/

(there a garden small behind the house)

There is a small garden behind the house.

b. covered and hidden

101. /kaana ?allissu muxtafiyan waraa?a ?albaabi/

(was the thief hiding behind the door)

The thief was hiding behind the door.

B) Other senses

a. the occurrence of something

102. /maataa waraa?aka/

(what behind you)

What happened?

b. something to be made or arranged

103. /taraktu waraa?ii ?aʃyaa?an kaøiiratan/

(left I behind me things many)

I left many things to be done.

6.3.4.2. /xalfa/

A) Spatial senses: this preposition is used to denote the same senses denoted by the preposition /waraa?a/.

B) Other senses: this preposition is used to denote only the idea of the secret occurrence of something, e.g.

104. /laa taf9al ʃay?an xalfa ʃahr̥ii/

(not do a thing behind back my)

Don't do anything behind my back.

The preposition /min/ can precede these two prepositions to form compound prepositions which can indicate the location, where the movement starts, e.g.

105. /xaraja min waraa?i/xalfi ?albinaayati/

(came he out from behind the building)

He came out from behind the building.

6.3.5. Group E. /fawqa/, /tahta/, /duuna/, /qurba/, /9inda/

6.3.5.1. /fawqa/ (on, over, above, onto)

A) Spatial senses

a. higher than

106. /waɖa9naa suuratahu fawqa sariirihi/

(put we picture his above bed his)

We put his picture above his bed.

b. directly above

107. /ʔalsamaaʔu fawqa ruʔuusinaa/

(the sky over heads our)

The sky is over our heads.

c. on

108. /da9 kutubaka fawqa ʔalraḥlati/

(put books your on the desk)

Put your books on the desk.

d. above and to the other side

109. /qafaza fawqa ʔalminḡadati/

(jumped he over the table)

He jumped over the table.

B) Other senses

a. more than

110. /ʔasbaḡa 9umrahu fawqa ʔalxamsiin/

(becomes age his over the fifty)

He is over fifty.

b. beyond

111. /kullifnaa bi9amalin fawqa ṭaaqatinaa/

(were asked we in work beyond ability our)

We were asked to perform a task beyond our ability.

c. besides or in addition to

112. /huwa fawqa ṭaalika ʔaa9irun mutafanninun/

(he besides that a poet versatile)

He is, besides that, a versatile poet.

6.3.5.2. /tahta/ (under, below, beneath, underneath)

A) Spatial senses

a. The preposition /tahta/ in Arabic is used to convey the two meanings denoted by below and under in English, i.e. where there is some kind of contact between the referent of the noun preceding the preposition and the one following it (127a) or where there is a space between them (127b), e.g.

113a. /wada9a ?almasjarata tahta kitaabihi/

(put he the ruler under book his)

He put the ruler under his book.

113b. /naamat ?alqittatu tahta ?alsariiri/

(slept the cat below the bed)

The cat slept below the bed.

b. at a lower level than

114. /zara9naa wardan tahta ?aljubbaaki/

(planted we flowers beneath the window)

We planted flowers beneath the window.

B) Other senses

a. less than

115. /tuwiffiya wa9umruhu tahta ?al?arba9iin/

(died he and age his below the forty)

He died before reaching forty.

b. lower in rank

116. /kaana mansibuhu tahta ?almaliki mubaaJaratan/

(was rank his below the king directly)

His rank was directly below the king.

c. in process of

117. /mu9iam ?alturuqi tahta ?altasliihi ?al?aan/

(most the roads under the repair now)

Most of the roads are under repair now.

d. classification, heading, entry, etc. in a list or index

118. /ʔibħaʔ 9an haataa ʔalmawduu9i tahta 9inwaani ʔadab/

(look for this subject under title literature)

Look for this subject under the title "literature".

Sometimes, the preposition /tahta/ is used metaphorically to indicate the meaning "hidden by" (133) or "being looked after" (134):

119. /haajara ʔalnabiyyu tahta sitri ʔalʔalaami/

(left the prophet under veil the darkness)

The Prophet left under the veil of darkness.

120. /kaana muħammadun tahta ħimaayati 9ammihi/

(was muhammad under care uncle his)

Muhammad was in the care of his uncle.

The above examples show that the two prepositions /fawqa/ and /tahta/ are interchangeable in all contexts as direct opposites.

To denote the start of motion, both prepositions allow /min/ to precede them, forming at the same time compound prepositions, e.g.

121. /waqa9a min fawqi ʔalʔajarati/

(fell he from over the tree)

He fell off the tree.

122. /ʔaxrajuu ʔalʔaʔfaala min tahti ʔalʔanqaadi/

(picked they the children from under the rubble)

They picked the children up from under the rubble.

6.3.5.3. /duuna/ (under, below, near, beside)

This preposition is rarely used in spoken Arabic. It is often used in written Arabic to denote the following meanings:

A) Spatial senses

a. lower than

123. /tuujadu 9alaamatun faariqatun duuna haajibihaa/

(there is a mark distinctive below eyebrow her)

There is a distinctive mark below her eyebrow.

b. under

124. /duuna qadimika xaddu 9aduwwika/

(under foot your cheek enemy your)

May the cheek of the enemy be under your foot.

c. near

125. /xut ?alkitaaba fahuwa duunaka/

(take the book it near you)

Take the book; it is near you.

4. alongside

126. /hunaaka qitaalun duuna ?alnahri/

(there fighting alongside the river)

There was fighting alongside the river.

B) Other senses

a. less than in a quality

127. /hiya laysat duuna ?uxtihaa jamaalan/

(she not less sister her beauty)

She is not less beautiful than her sister.

b. less than in number

128. /tuwiffiya wahuwa duuna ?alxamsiin/

(died he and he below the fifty)

He died before he reached fifty.

c. lower in rank

129. /huwa duunaka manzilatan/

(he below you rank)

He is lower than you in rank.

d. excluding; but not

130. /?ixtaarahaa zawjatan duuna gayrihaa/

(chose her a wife but not anyone else)

He chose her as his wife rather than anyone else.

e. without

131. /tazawwaja duuna 9ilmihaa/

(married he without knowledge her)

He got married without her knowledge.

6.3.5.4. /qurba/ (near)

A) Spatial senses: this preposition is only used to express closeness, e.g.

132. /jalasnaa qurba ?alhadiiqati/

(sat we near the garden)

We sat near the garden.

B) Other senses: none is recorded.

6.3.5.5. /9inda/ (at, near)

A) Spatial senses: this preposition is used spatially only to denote the place where something occurs, e.g.

133. /taqaabalnaa 9inda ?almahattati/

(met we at the station)

We met at/near the station.

B) Other senses

a. time

134. /jaa?a 9inda tuluu9i ?alfajri/

(came he at rise the dawn)

He came at sunrise.

b. possession

135 /9indi baytun kabiirun/

(have I a house large)

/ I have a large house.

c. with

136. /?aqaama 9indahaa jahrayni/

(stayed he with her two months)

He stayed two months with her.

The above mentioned examples show that though the prepositions /qurba/ and /9inda/ are semantically related in denoting closeness or vicinity, there are slight differences.

To indicate motion, the preposition /min/ precedes /9inda/ and /qurba/, forming with them compound prepositions, e.g.

137. /haraba ?allissu min 9indika/qurbika/

(ran away the thief from near/beside you)

The thief ran away from near/beside you.

The preposition /baa?/ also precedes the preposition /qurba/ but in this case it gives the same meaning as /qurba/, e.g.

138. /jalastu qurbahaa/biqurbihaa/

(sat I near her)

I sat near her.

6.3.6. Group F. /bijaanibi/janba/; /bimuhaataati/;
/tuula/tiwaala/

6.3.6.1. /bijaanibi/janba/ (beside; near)

Of the two prepositions, the usage of the compound preposition /bijaanibi/ is more common.

A) Spatial senses: these two prepositions are used only to denote the meaning "near" or "beside", e.g.

139. /kaana jaalisan bijaanibi/janba ?abiihi/

(was he sitting beside father his)

He was sitting beside his father.

B) Other senses: the above prepositions are used only to indicate the idea of "support", e.g.

140. /waqafnaa bijaanibihi/janbahu fii mihnatihi/

(stood we beside him in ordeal his/

We helped him during his ordeal.

6.3.6.2. /bimuhaataati/

A) Spatial senses: this preposition is only used spatially to indicate the meaning "with the length beside", e.g.

141. /waqafat ?alsafiinatu bimuhaataati ?alrajiifi/

(stopped the ship alongside the quay)

The ship stopped alongside the quay.

B) Other senses: none is recorded.

6.3.6.3. /tuula/tiwaala/

Both prepositions are interchangeable in all contexts except in forming a compound preposition; the preposition /9alaa/ precedes /tuula/ but never /tiwaala/.

A) Spatial senses: the only spatial sense that these prepositions denote is "from end to end", e.g.

142./hunaaka 9iddatu binaayaatin kabiiratin tuula/tiwaala haataa ?altarii*qi*/

(there some buildings large along this the road)

There are some large buildings along this road.

B) Other senses: the only other sense that the above prepositions can denote is "time", e.g.

143. /kaanat saamitatan tiwaala/tuula taalika ?alwaqti/

(was she silent along the time)

She was silent during that period of time.

The compound preposition /9alaa tuuli/ is more commonly used than the above two prepositions in denoting the same spatial sense.

The prepositions /bimuhaataati/ and /bijaanibi/ both denote the sense "beside", and are interchangeable, e.g.

144. /waqafa ?alnaasu bijaanibi/bimuhaataati ?aljaari9i
liru?yatihi/

(the people stood beside/alongside the street for see him)

The people were standing along the street to see him.

Likewise, the two prepositions /bimuhaataati/ and /9alaa tuuli/ are interchangeable in denoting the sense "from end to end", e.g.

145. /zuri9at ?afjaarun kaøiiratun bimuhaataati/9alaa tuuli
?aljaari9i/

(were planted trees many alongside/along the street)

Many trees were planted along the street.

6.3.7. Group G. /xaarija/; /daaxila/

6.3.7.1. /xaarija/ (outside)

A) Spatial senses

Basically, this preposition is used to indicate the spatial sense "outside", e.g.

146. /?intadarnaahu xaarija ?alkulliyyati/

(waited for we him outside the college)

We waited for him outside the college.

B) Other senses: this preposition is used to indicate only the meaning of "beyond", e.g.

147. /kaana taalika xaarija ?iraadatihi/

(was that beyond will his)

That was beyond his will.

6.3.7.2. /daaxila/ (inside, within)

A) Spatial senses

a. inside

148. /?iltaqaa bihaa daaxila ?almutanazzahi/

(met he her inside the park)

He met her inside the park.

b. within

149. /hunaaka qitaalun daaxila ?alhuduudi/

(there fighting within the borders)

There is fighting within the borders.

The prepositions /daaxila/ and /xaarija/ are used spatially as direct opposites. The preposition /min/ often precedes them to form compound prepositions, e.g.

150. /tustawradu ?alsayyaaraatu min xaariji ?albilaadi/

(were imported the cars from outside the country)

The cars were imported from outside the country.

151. /haraba min daaxili ?algurfati/

(ran away he from inside the room)

He ran away from inside the room.

Sometimes, the preposition /xaarija/ may be preceded by /?ilaa/ or /laam/, whereas /daaxila/ may be preceded by /?ilaa/, /laam/, /baa?/, or /fii/. The omission of these prepositions does not change the meanings denoted by /xaarija/ and /daaxila/. Consider the following examples:

152. /?indafa9a ?aljayfu (?ilaa/li) xaariji ?alhuduudi/

(moved suddenly the army to outside the borders)

The army moved suddenly (to) beyond the borders.

153. /tahabuu (?ilaa/li) daaxili buyuutihim/

(went they to inside houses their)

They went inside their houses.

154. /qubida 9alayhi (fii, bi) daaxili ?albinaayati/

(was caught he (in) inside the building)

He was caught inside the building.

6.3.8. Group H. /qabla/ (before); /ba9da/ (after)

Basically, the above two prepositions are used to denote temporal senses as direct opposites, as in:

155. /sa?azuuruka qabla/ba9da ?aljuhri/

(will visit I you before/after the noon)

I'll visit you before/after noon.

But, as stated by Hassan (1973: 55), they can be used to indicate spatial senses, as in:

156. /daarii qabla/ba9da daarihi/

(house my before/after house his)

My house is before/after his.

The preposition /min/ sometimes precedes /ba9da/ to form a compound preposition but its addition does not affect the meaning, e.g.

157. /jaa?a (min) ba9dii/

(came he (from) after me)

He came after me.

6.3.9. Group I /yamiina/; /yasaara/; /jimaala/; /januuba/
/jarqa/; /garba/

The above words are used to denote the direction of a certain location. Although Arab grammarians and researchers have never considered these words as prepositions of place relation, the present writer believes that they behave syntactically and semantically as prepositions of place relation. The following two examples may show this fact:

158a. /buniyat mustaʃfan fii haatihi ʔalmadiinati/

(was built a hospital in this the town)

A hospital was built in this town.

158b. /buniyat mustaʃfan jimaala haatihi ʔalmadiinati/

(was built a hospital north this the town)

A hospital was built to the north of this town.

The following examples illustrate the use of the above mentioned prepositions:

159. /waqafnaa yamiina/jimaala ʔalbinaayati/

(stood we right/left the building)

We stood on the right/left side of the building.

160. /taqa9u madiinatunaa ʃimaala/januuba/ʃarqa/garbaʔal9aasimati/
(situated town our north/south/east/west the capital)

Our town is situated to the north/south/east/west of the capital.

The prepositions /min/, /ʔilaa/, /baaʔ/, and /fii/ often precede these prepositions to form compound prepositions, e.g.

161. /tawajjahuu ʔilaa ʃimaali/januubi/ʃarqi/garbi ʔalbilaadi/
(went they towards north/south/east/west the country)

They went towards the north/south/east/west of the country.

162. /jaaʔuu jamii9uhum min ʃimaali/januubi/ʃarqi/garbi ʔalbilaadi/
(came all they from north/south/east/west the country)

They all came from the north/south/east/west of the country.

163. /hadaʒa taalika bi/fii ʃimaali/januubi/ʃarqi/garbi ʔalbilaadi/
(happened that in north/south/east/west the country)

That took place in the north/south/east/west of the country.

6.3.10. /hawla/ ((a)round, about)

A) Spatial senses

a. encircling

164. /banaa ʔal9arabu hu9uunan hawla mudunihim/
(built the Arab fortresses (a)round towns their)

The Arabs built fortresses (a)round their towns.

b. in the vicinity of or on all sides

165. /tajamma9a ʔalnaasu hawla ʔalraʔiisi/
(gathered the people (a)round the president)

The people gathered (a)round the president.

c. from place to place in a certain area

166. /tamatta9uu kaøiiran bisafratihim hawla ?al9aalami/

(enjoyed they much in journey their (a)round the world)

They much enjoyed their journey (a)round the world.

d. near to

167. /laayuujadu hawlîi Jay?an li?uṭfi?a ?alnaara/

(there nothing (a)round me a thing to extinguish the fire)

There is nothing near me to extinguish the fire.

B) Other senses: this preposition is commonly used to denote the meaning "on the subject of", e.g.

168. /taḥaddaəa kaøiiran hawla ?almawḍuu9i/

(talked he much about the subject)

He talked much about the subject.

The preposition /min/ precedes /hawla/ to form a compound preposition, as in:

169. /tafarraqa ?alnaasu min hawlihi/

(scattered the people from (a)round him)

The people scattered from (a)round him.

6.3.11. /naḥwa/tijaaha/ (towards, to)

A) Spatial senses: these prepositions are used to indicate only the meaning "direction towards", e.g.

170. /sirnaa naḥwa/tijaaha ?almadiinati fajran/

(walked we towards the city dawn)

We walked towards the city at dawn.

B) Other senses

a. about (in an abstract connotation)

171. /kayfa kaana Ju9uuruka naḥwahu/tijaahahu/

(how was feelings your towards him)

How did you feel towards him?

b. nearly, about (in quantity)

172. /baqaa hunaaka nahwa 9iḥriina 9aaman/

(stayed he there about twenty years)

He stayed there about twenty years.

6.3.12. /9abra/ (across)

This preposition is more frequently used in spoken Arabic to denote a spatial sense, whereas in written Arabic it is more often used to indicate time.

A) Spatial senses

a. from one side to another

173. /ṭahabuu ʔilaa makkata 9abra ʔalsahraaʔi/

(went they to Mecca across the desert)

They went to Mecca across the desert.

b. on the other side

174. /kaana saakinan 9abra ʔalnahri/

(was he living across the river)

He was living across the river.

B) Other senses: the only other sense that /9abra/ denotes is "time", e.g.

175. /banaa ʔal9arabu ḥaḍaaraatihim 9abra ʔalquruuni ʔalmaadiyati/

(built the Arabs civilizations their across the centuries the past)

The Arabs built their civilizations over the past centuries.

6.3.13. /xilaala/ (through)

A) Spatial senses: the only spatial meaning that this preposition can indicate is "penetration", e.g.

176. /tasallala ?al9aduwwu xilaala ?alwidyaani/

(sneaked the enemy through the valleys)

The enemy sneaked through the valleys.

B) Other senses: the most common meaning that /xilaala/ can denote is "a specified period of time", as in:

177. /hadaða taalika xilaala daqiiqatin/

(took place that within a minute)

That took place within a minute.

The preposition /xilaala/ is often preceded by the preposition /min/ to denote its spatial senses; however, omission of /min/ does not affect the meaning, e.g.

178. /jaahadnaahu (min) xilaali ?alnaafitati/

(saw we him from through/through the window)

We saw him through the window.

6.4. Overlapping among Arabic Prepositions6.4.1. /baa?/ and /fii/

Though the above two prepositions are often interchangeable in denoting almost all the senses, there are some differences. When denoting spatial senses, the preposition /fii/ is basically used to convey the idea that one thing is actually in the mid st of another, surrounded by it on all sides, whereas /baa?/ indicates that something is close by another thing or in contact with it. Thus, it is more common to say,

179. /fii ?alḥaqiibati kutubun/

(in the bag books)

There are books in the bag.

than to say,

180. /bi?alḥaqiibati kutubun/

(in the bag books)

There are books in the bag.

Despite the prescriptive rule which states that /baa?/ is used for a town or a village and /fii/ for a country, we often find both uses denoted by the same preposition, e.g.

181. /makæa tawiilan fii/bimisra.

(stayed he a long time in Egypt)

He stayed in Egypt for a long time.

182. /sakana waaliduhu fii/bitilka ?alqaryati/

(lived father his in that village)

His father lived in that village.

On the other hand, we can say

183a. /marartu bi?almasjidi/

(passed by I in the mosque)

I passed by the mosque.

but not

183b. */marartu fii ?almasjidi/

(passed by I in the mosque)

I passed by the mosque.

When used temporally, the preposition /fii/ can be often used instead of /baa?/. The reverse is not the case, however, e.g.

184a. /sa?azuuruhu fii ?alsabaahi/

(will visit I him in the morning)

I 'll visit him in the morning.

but not

184b. */sa?azuuruhu bi?alsabaahi/

(will visit I him in the morning)

I 'll visit him in the morning.

corresponding to

185. /zurtuhu bi/fii ?al?amsi/

(visited I him in the yesterday)

I visited him yesterday.

6.4.2. /min/ and /9an/

As stated by Cantarino (1975: 276), the meanings of these two prepositions are related to each other to some extent. The preposition /min/, however, always implies a relation to an origin, whereas /9an/ emphasizes distance and separation from an origin. This significant difference is asserted by Lentzer (1977: 90), who states that the function of /9an/ is related to that of /min/ but that the semantic information carried by /9an/ implies separation and distance, whereas the idea of proximity is considered as an integral part of the meaning of /min/. This contrast between the two prepositions is clearly shown by Lane (1955: 2164), who states "among the cases in which there is a difference between /min/ and /9an/the former has adjoined to it a noun signifying what is near; and the latter, what is remote".

Moreover, a syntactic difference between the two prepositions is that /min/ with its complement can function as an independent predicate (186), whereas the preposition /9an/ with its complement cannot (187):

186. /ʔanaa min ʔalʕiraaqi/

(I from the Iraq)

I am from Iraq.

187. */ʔanaa 9an ʔalmadiinati/

(I away from the town)

I am away from the town.

Another salient difference between the two prepositions is indicated by the verbs preceding them, i.e. /9an/ is always preceded by verbs denoting separation, whereas the verbs preceding /min/ should indicate directional movement towards a point. Thus while it is possible to say,

188. /jaaʔuu min ʔalmadrasati/

(came they from the school)

They came from school.

it is definitely impossible to say,

189. */jaaʔuu 9an ʔalmadrasati/

(came they away from the school)

They came away from school.

6.4.3. /bayna/ and /wasta/

The examples stated above (6.3.3.) show that the above two prepositions are interchangeable. Nevertheless, /bayna/ is more frequently used to denote all senses except the one meaning "in the central part".

To denote motion, i.e. to form compound prepositions, the preposition /min/ precedes /bayna/ as well as /wasta/, e.g.

190. /ʔahara fujʔatan min bayni/wasti ʔalʔaʕjaari/

(appeared he suddenly from among the trees)

Suddenly, he appeared from among the trees.

Sometimes, the preposition /fii/ precedes /wasta/ without implying any difference in meaning, e. g.

191. /sakana wasta/ fii wasti ?almadiinati/

(lived he in the centre of the city)

He lived in the central part of the city.

6.4.4. /tahta/ and /duuna/

From the examples stated above (6.3.5.), we can see that these two prepositions are interchangeable in denoting the meaning of under in spatial as well as in other senses. However, the use of one instead of the other to denote senses other than under is unacceptable in the language.

Furthermore, the use of the preposition /tahta/ is more common than the use of the preposition /duuna/, especially in spoken language.

Only the preposition /min/ can precede /tahta/ to indicate motion and to form a compound preposition.

The preposition /duuna/, on the other hand, is preceded either by /min/ or /baa?/ but, in this case, it does not indicate a spatial sense, e.g.

192. /rahalat bi/min duunihi/

(left she without him)

She left without him.

The meaning denoted by the compound preposition /bi/min duuni/ in the above example is "without".

6.4.5. /nahwa/ and /?ilaa/

Though these two prepositions can be used to indicate the meaning

"movement to", there is a slight difference. Consider the following two examples:

193a. /saaruu nahwa ?alrajuli/

(walked they toward(s) the man)

They walked toward(s) the man.

193b. /saaruu ?ilaa ?alrajuli/

(walked they to the man)

They walked to the man.

The preposition /nahwa/ in the first example indicates that the movement is not completed, whereas /?ilaa/ in the second sentence indicates the completion of the movement.

This chapter illustrates the fact that senses denoted by prepositions of the first category, i.e. those considered by Arab grammarians as "true propositions", are far more numerous than those denoted by prepositions of the second category, i.e. prepositions considered by Arab grammarians as adverbs of place. The present writer has added a large number of senses which have not been mentioned by Arab grammar books. The sources of addition are, firstly, the writer, as a native speaker of Arabic, and secondly the parallel senses denoted by English prepositions of place relation.

Chapter Seven

Contrastive Analysis

7.1. Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to find out points of similarity and difference in the use of prepositions of place relation in English and in Arabic. The comparison of all uses, particularly the spatial ones, mentioned in chapters four and six, is the main concern of this study. This comparison will show the differences between the two languages, which may constitute the real problem Arab learners face in using prepositions of place relation. However, what has been mentioned in chapters three and five, i.e. the function, classification, definition, omission, etc. of prepositions, will not be included in the field of comparison. Differences and similarities in these areas can easily be detected by the reader if he/she goes through the aforementioned chapters, which are intended to give the reader a general idea of the prepositional systems in the two languages.

All spatial senses will be dealt with exhaustively in this chapter. The comparison of all other senses will be placed in the appendix, to show which prepositions are equivalent or non-equivalent in the two languages in denoting any sense. It is hoped that the teaching and learning of English prepositions of place relation will be facilitated by amplifying and clarifying problematic areas.

The procedure followed by the present writer deviates somewhat from that demonstrated by Lado in his book Linguistics Across Cultures, since the present approach lays emphasis on meaning rather than on form. Thus, all spatial senses of each English preposition are compared with their counterparts in Arabic, in order to ascertain

whether these senses are conveyed in a similar or different fashion. As has been mentioned above, differences in propositional usage are likely to prove problematic to Iraqi learners of English.

7.2. List of Comparisons

7.2.1. Aboard

/9alaa jahri/

SE

SA

(Standard English)

(Standard Arabic)

They went aboard the ship.

a. /sa9aduu ?ilaa/9alaa/9alaa
jahri/?alsafiinati/

(ascended they to/on/on board the
ship)

b. /sa9ada ?alnaasu ?alsafiinata/
(ascended the people the ship)

Meaning

The preposition aboard is used to indicate the meaning "in or on (a ship, a plane, and sometimes a train or a bus)".

To denote the same meaning in Arabic, the verb /yas9adu/ (ascend) followed by either the preposition /?ilaa/9alaa/ or the construction /9alaa jahri/ is used.

Problems

There is no problem if the students think of the English preposition aboard and the Arabic construction /9alaa jahri/ as counterparts in denoting this sense. But, if they literally translate the Arabic

construction /9alaa jahri/(on board), there may be a problem of addition. The students may add the preposition on before aboard thinking it is "on board". Moreover, if they think of the other two options, i.e. /?ilaa/ and /9alaa/, there would be a problem of replacement. The students may use either the preposition to or on, the equivalents of /?ilaa/ and /9alaa/, instead of aboard. Besides, there will be a problem of omission if they think of sentence (b). In Arabic, it is possible to use the verb /sa9ada/(ascend) alone to indicate this sense, i.e. without using any preposition.

7.2.2. About

/hawla/hawaali/

SE

SA

a. The papers were scattered
about the floor.

/?al?awraaqu mutanaaʕiratun

fawqa/9alaa ?al?ardi/

(the papers scattered over/above
on the floor)

Meaning

The preposition about is used here to denote the meaning "at various places in a given area".

To indicate the same meaning in Arabic, either the preposition /9alaa/ or /fawqa/ is used.

Problems

There will be a 'problem of replacement here since the preposition /hawla/(about) is not used in Arabic to denote this sense. The students may use the prepositions on, over or above, the literal translations of the Arabic prepositions /9alaa/ and /fawqa/, instead of the correct preposition about.

SE

b. She had a gold chain about her neck.

SA

/wada9at qilaadatan tahabiyyatan
hawla 9unuqihaa/
 (put on she chain gold about/
(a)round neck her)

Meaning

The preposition about is used to indicate the meaning "(a)round" or "encircling".

The preposition /hawla/(about) is used to convey the same meaning.

Problems

There will be no problem if the students think of about and /hawla/ as equivalent in denoting this sense. However, there may be a problem of avoidance. The students may use the preposition around instead of about since it is more commonly used in English. If, on the other hand, the students think of the other option, i.e. /9alaa/, there will be a problem of replacement. The preposition on, the counterpart of /9alaa/, will be used instead of about.

SE

c. She is a woman who likes to have children about her.

SA

/hiya ?imra?atun tuhibbu ?an
 yajtami9a ?al?a?faalu hawlahaa/
hawaalayhaa/
 (she a woman like gathering the
 children (a)round/about her)

Meaning

The preposition about is used to denote the idea "in the vicinity of" or "(a)round".

Either the preposition /hawla/ or /hawaali/ is used to denote the same meaning.

Problems: no problems are faced here apart from that of avoidance mentioned in (b) above.

SE

d. The nature of his work enables him to get about the world.

SA

/laqad makkanathu tabii9atu
9amalihi ?an yusaafira hawla
?al9aalami/

(that enable him nature work his
that travel about/(a)round the
world)

Meaning

The sense denoted by the preposition about here is "from one place to another within a specified area".

The preposition /hawla/ is used to denote the same meaning.

Problems: see (c) above.

SE

e. She doesn't appear to

SA

/laayabduu ?annahaa mawjuudatun

be about the house.

fii ?albayti/

(not appear that she is in the house)

Meaning

The preposition about is used to indicate the meaning "somewhere within a given area or place".

To indicate the same meaning in Arabic, the preposition /fii/ is used.

Problems

There will be a problem of replacement here because the preposition /hawla/ is not used to denote this sense. The students may use the preposition in, the counterpart of /fii/, instead of about.

SE

f. I have no money about me.

SA

/laatuujadu nuquudun hawaalayya qurbii/

(no there money have about/near me)

Meaning

The sense denoted by the preposition about is "near to".

To denote the same meaning, either the preposition /hawaali/ or /qurba/ is used.

Problems

If the students think of the preposition /hawaali/, which is rarely

used to denote this sense, as the proper counterpart of about, there will be no problem. However, there will be a problem of avoidance if they think of the other option. The students may use the preposition near, the literal translation of /qurba/, instead of about.

7.2.3. Above

/fawqa/

SE

SA

The aeroplane was above
the clouds.

/kaanat ?altaa?iratu fawqa
?alguyuumi/
(was the aeroplane over/above the
clouds)

Meaning

The preposition above is
used to denote the meaning
"higher than"/"over".

The Arabic preposition /fawqa/
is used to indicate the same
meaning.

Problems

There will be no problem if the students think of the two prepositions /fawqa/ and above as equivalent in denoting this sense. However, there will be some confusion about whether to use above or over. The cause of this confusion is twofold. First, in Arabic, the preposition /fawqa/ stands for the meaning of both prepositions, i.e. above and over. The second reason is due to overlapping between these two prepositions in the English language (see P. 132).

7.2.4. Across

/9abra/

SESAa. He ran across the street.

a. /rakada 9abra ?aljaari9i/

(ran he across the street)

b. /9abara ?aljaari9a 9adwan/

(crossed he the street running)

Meaning

The meaning denoted by
across is "from one side
 to another".

To indicate the same meaning,
 either the preposition /9abra/ (a)
 or the verb /9abara/ (b) is used.

Problems

If the students think of the first option, there will be no problem since the two prepositions across and /9abra/ are equivalent in denoting this sense. However, the preposition /9abra/ is rarely used in Arabic to convey this idea. The second option, i.e. the use of the verb /ya9buru/ is more common. This may be the cause of a problem of avoidance. Furthermore, students may use the verb "cross", the literal translation of the verb /ya9buru/, instead of across

SESA

b. There are many houses
across the river.

a. /hunaaka buyuutun kaøiiratun

9abra ?alnahri/

(there houses many across the
 river)

b. /hunaaka buyuutan kaøiiratan

fii ?aljaanibi ?al?aaxari min
 ?alnahri/

(there houses many in the side the
 other from the river)

There are many houses on the other
 side of the river.

Meaning

The preposition across is
 used to express the meaning
 "on the other side from here".

Either the preposition /9abra/(a)
 or the construction /fii
 ?aljaanibi ?al?aaxiri/(b) is used
 to express the same meaning.

Problems

There will be no problem if the students think of the two prepositions across and /9abra/ as equivalent. But if the students think of the other option, which is more often used in Arabic to convey the same idea, there will be two types of problems, namely avoidance and replacement. First, the students will try to avoid the use of /9abra/ because it is rarely used in Arabic to indicate this sense. Second, there will be a problem of replacement because the students may use the prepositions in and from, the counterparts of /fii/ and /min/ which are used in the second sentence, instead of on and of.

SE

c. They built another bridge
across this river.

SA

/banuu jisran ?aaxara fawqa
 haataa ?alnahri/
 (built they a bridge another

over/above this river)

Meaning

The preposition across is used to express the idea of "stretching from one side to another".

The preposition /fawqa/ is used to indicate the same meaning.

Problems

There will be a problem of replacement here because the Arabic preposition /9abra/ is not used to denote this sense. The students may use either over or above, the counterparts of the Arabic preposition /fawqa/, instead of the correct preposition across.

SE

d. AB goes across CD at E.

SA

/ʔalif baaʔ yataqaata9u ma9a

jiim daal fii haaʔ/

(AB intersect with CD in E)

Meaning

The preposition across is used to indicate the meaning "intersecting".

To express the same meaning, the verb /yataqaata9u/ followed by the preposition /ma9a/ (with) is used.

Problems

There will be a problem of avoidance here. The students may use the

construction "intersect with", the literal translation of the verb /yataqaata9u ma9a/, instead of across.

7.2.5. After

/ba9da/xalfa/waraa?a/

SE

SA

a. Shut the door after you
When you go out.

/?igliq ?albaaba ba9daka/xalfaka/
waraa?aka/ 9indamaa taxruja/
(shut the door after/behind you
when go out you)

Meaning

The preposition after is
used to denote the meaning
"behind".

To indicate the same sense in
Arabic, either the preposition
/ba9da/, /xalfa/ or /waraa?a/
is used.

Problems

No problems are expected here since the prepositions after/behind and /ba9da/xalfa/waraa?a/ are equivalent in the two languages in denoting this meaning. However, there will be a problem of avoidance here. The students may use behind instead of after because, in English as well as in Arabic, the prepositions behind and /waraa?a/ are more often used than after and /xalfa/ba9da/ to denote this sense.

SE

SA

b. We have to run after
the bus.

/9alaynaa ?an narkuda xalfa/
ba9da/waraa?a ?almarkabati/
(have to we run after/behind
the bus)

Meaning

The preposition after is used to convey the idea of "following".

To indicate the same meaning in Arabic, either the preposition /xalfa/, /ba9da/, or /waraa?a/ is used.

Problems

There will be no problem if the students only think of after and /ba9da/xalfa/waraa?a/ as equivalent. But if they think of the other possible translation of these prepositions, i.e. behind, there will be a problem of replacement. The students will use behind instead of after.

7.2.6. Against

/9aks/did/

SE

SA

a. Don't lean against the wall.

/laatattaki? 9alaa ?aljidaari/
(not lean on the wall)

Meaning

The preposition against is used to denote the meaning "in contact with".

To indicate the same meaning, the preposition /9alaa/ is used.

Problems

There will be a problem of replacement here since the Arabic prepositions /9aks/ and /did/ are not used to indicate this sense. The

students may use the preposition on, the literal translation of /9alaa/, instead of against.

SE

b. She struck her head
against the wall

SA

/laʔamat raʔsahaa biʔaljidaari/
(struck she head her in the wall)

Meaning

The meaning denoted by the preposition against is "in sudden contact with as a result of a collision".

To convey the same meaning, the preposition /baaʔ/ is used.

Problems

Again, there is a problem of replacement. The students may use the preposition in, the equivalent of the Arabic preposition /baaʔ/ which is used to indicate this sense, instead of the correct preposition against.

SE

Can you row a boat against
the current?

SA

/hal tastatii9a ʔan taquuda
markaban didda/9aksa ʔaltayyaari/
(can you row a boat against the
current?)

Meaning

The preposition against
is used to indicate the

This meaning is indicated by the prepositions /didda/ and /9aksa/.

meaning "in the opposite
direction to".

Problems

No problems are expected here since the prepositions /did/ and /9aks/
are the literal translations of against.

7.2.7. Ahead of

/?amaama/

SE

SA

He was running ahead of
the others.

/kaana yarkudu ?amaama/
qabla ?al?aaxariin/
(was running in front of/
before the others)

Meaning

The preposition ahead of
is used to express the
meaning "in front of".

To indicate the same meaning
either the preposition /?amaama/
or /qabla/ is used.

Problems

Two types of problems are expected here. If the students think of the
first option, i.e. the use of /?amaama/, there will be a problem of
avoidance. They may avoid the use of ahead of and use in front of
since the latter is more commonly used. If the students think of the
other option, i.e. the use of /qabla/, there will be a problem of
replacement. The incorrect preposition before, the counterpart of
/qabla/, may be used instead of ahead of.

7.2.8. Along

/tuula/tiwaala/9alaa tuuli/

SESA

a. There are some trees
along the road to the
village.

/hunaaka 9iddatu ?afjaarin tuula
tiwaala/9alaa tuuli ?altariiqi
?almu?addi ?ilaa ?algaryati/

(there some trees along/on along
the road to the village)

Meaning

The meaning indicated by
the preposition along is
"from end to end".

To indicate the same meaning in
Arabic, either /tuula/, /tiwaala/
or /9alaa tuuli/ is used

Problems

There will be no problem if the students think of /?tuula/tiwaala/ and along as equivalent in denoting this sense. But, if they think of the other option /9alaa tuuli/, there will be a problem of addition, i.e. the preposition on may be added to along, forming a compound preposition, as the literal translation of /9alaa tuuli/.

Furthermore, it is possible in Arabic to use /9alaa/(on) and /fii/(in) to indicate a similar sense. Thus, if the students think of this option, they will use either on or in instead of along.

SESA

b. She was pulling a bundle
along the ice.

/kaanat tashabu huzmatan fawqa/
/9alaa ?aljaliidi/

(was she pulling a bundle
over/above/on the ice)

Meaning

The preposition along is used to convey the idea of "moving something on a flat surface".

To indicate the same meaning in Arabic, either the preposition /fawqa/ or /9alaa/ is used.

Problems

There will be a problem of replacement here. The students may use the prepositions over, above or on, the literal translations of /fawqa/ and /9alaa/, instead of along.

7.2.9. Alongside

/bimuhaataati/

SESA

The vessel anchored alongside the quay.

/waqafa ?almarkabu bimuhaataati/
bijaanibi ?alrasiifi/
 (stopped the vessel alongside/
beside the quay)

Meaning

The preposition alongside is used to convey the idea "with the length including".

To indicate the same meaning, either the preposition /bimuhaataati/ or /bijaanibi/ is used.

Problems

If the students think of the two prepositions alongside and

/bimuḥaataati/ as equivalent, there will be no problem. But if they think of the preposition beside, which can be used in Arabic to convey the same idea, there will be a problem of replacement. The students may use beside, the literal translation of /biḥaanibi/, instead of alongside.

7.2.10. Amid(st)

/wasta/

SE

SA

There was a grave amid(st)
the grass.

/kaana hunaaka qabran wasta/

?alḥaḥaaʔiʃi/

(was there a grave in the middle
of the grass)

Meaning

The meaning conveyed by the
preposition amid(st) is "in
the middle of".

To indicate the same meaning,
the preposition /wasta/ is used.

Problems

There would be a problem of avoidance here since this preposition is not commonly used in English. The students prefer to use more common prepositions such as between, among or the construction "in the middle of" to indicate the same meaning. Though among is acceptable here, the other two are not.

7.2.11. Among(st)

/bayna/

SESA

There was a village among(st)
the hills.

/kaanat hunaaka qaryatun bayna
?altilaali/
(was there a village among the
hills)

Meaning

The preposition among(st) is
used to indicate the meaning
"in the midst of or surrounded
by".

To indicate the same meaning,
the preposition /bayna/ is
used.

Problems

The students may be confused about whether to use among or between to convey this sense. The cause of this confusion is twofold. First, in Arabic, the preposition /bayna/ corresponds to two English prepositions, i.e. among and between. The other reason is the overlapping of among and between when they precede an object denoting more than two (see P. 135).

7.2.12. (A)round

/hawla/

SESA

a. They sat (a)round this
table.

/jalasuu hawla haatihi
?alminḡadati/
(sat they (a)round this
the table)

Meaning

The preposition (a)round is used to indicate the meaning "encircling".

The preposition /hawla/ is used to denote the same meaning.

Problems

No problems are expected here since the two prepositions (a)round and /hawla/ are equivalent in indicating this sense.

SE

b. She was wearing a scarf
(a)round her neck.

SA

/kaanat taɖa9u laffaafan hawla
9uniqihaa/
(was she putting a scarf (a)round
neck her)

Meaning

The meaning denoted by the preposition (a)round is "completely or partly covering".

To indicate the same meaning, the preposition /hawla/ is used.

Problems: see (a) above.

SE

c. A crowd of people gathered
(a)round the speaker.

SA

/tajamma9at majmuu9atun min
?alnaasi hawla ?alxatiibi/
(gathered a group from people
(a)round the speaker)

Meaning

The meaning indicated by the preposition (a)round is "placed in various positions on all sides of it" or "in the vicinity of".

The preposition /hawla/ is used to indicate the same meaning.

Problems: see (a) above.

SE

d. The post office is just (a)round the corner.

SA

/taqa9u daa?iratu ?albariidi
9inda/fii ?almun9atafi/
(situated office the post
office at/in the corner)

Meaning

The preposition (a)round is used to indicate the meaning "situated in a curve or at an angle".

To convey the same idea, the preposition either /9inda/ or /fii/ is used.

Problems

The students may face a problem of replacement here since the Arabic preposition /hawla/ is not used to indicate this sense. They would use either at or in, the literal translation of /9inda/ and /fii/, instead of (a)round.

SE

e. We wandered (a)round the
city looking for him.

SA

/tajawwalnaa fii ?almadiinati
bahøan 9anhu/
(wandered we in the city)

Meaning

The preposition (a)round
is used to convey the idea
"from place to place within
a given area".

To denote the same meaning, the
preposition /fii/ is used.

Problems

The students would face a problem of replacement here since the
Arabic preposition /hawla/ is not used to denote this sense. The
preposition in, the equivalent of /fii/, would be used instead of
(a)round.

SE

f. He has five shops scattered
(a)round the city.

SA

/9indahu xamsu mahallaatin
muwazza9atan fii ?almadiinati/
(has he five shops scattered
in the city)

Meaning

The meaning denoted by the
preposition (a)round here
is "all over the place/area
that is mentioned".

To denote the same meaning,
the preposition /fii/ is used.

Problems

See (f) above.

SE

g. The earth moves (a)round
the sun.

SA

/taduuru ?al?ardu hawla ?al?amsi/
(move the earth (a)round the sun)

Meaning

The preposition (a)round is
used to indicate the meaning
"movement on the outside in
the shape of a circle".

The same meaning is indicated
by the preposition /hawla/.

Problems

See (a) above.

7.2.13. Astride

no exact equivalent

SESA

Noor sat astride a large horse.

/rakabat nuur 9alaa hisaanin
kabiirin/
(rode Noor on a horse large)

Meaning

The meaning indicated by the
preposition astride is "one
leg on one side of something
and one on the other".

A rather similar meaning can
be denoted by the preposition
/9alaa/.

Problems

There will be a problem of avoidance here. The students may try to avoid using the preposition astride since it has no counterpart in Arabic. The preposition on would be used instead of astride since it is the equivalent of the preposition /9alaa/ which is used to indicate this sense.

7.2.14.	At	/9inda/
	<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>
a.	We met <u>at</u> the station.	/taqaabalnaa 9inda/fii ʔālmahattati/ (met we <u>at/in</u> the station)

Meaning

The meaning denoted by the preposition at is "the place where something happens or is situated".

Either the preposition /9inda/ or /fii/ is used to indicate the same meaning.

Problems

There will be no problem if the students think of the preposition /9inda/, which is rarely used in Arabic, to translate this sense, as the appropriate equivalent of the English preposition at. But there will be a problem of replacement if the students think of /fii/, which is more often used to convey the same meaning. The preposition in, the counterpart of /fii/, would be used instead of at.

SESA

b. He threw a stone at the window.

/ramaa hasaatan 9alaa ?aljubbaaki/
(threw he a stone on the window)

Meaning

The preposition at is used to indicate the meaning "towards with the intention of hitting".

To denote the same meaning, the preposition /9alaa/ is used.

Problems

The students may face a problem of replacement here, i.e. using the preposition on, the counterpart of /9alaa/, instead of at.

SE

c. He usually arrives late at his office.

SA

/daa?iman maa yasilu ?ilaa/
lidaa?iratihi muta?axxiran/
(usually arrive he to office his late)

Meaning

The preposition at is used to indicate the place where someone arrives.

Either the preposition /?ilaa/ or /laam/ is used to indicate the same meaning.

Problems

There will be another problem of replacement here. The preposition to, the counterpart of /?ilaa/laam/, may be used instead of at.

7.2.15. Away from

/ba9iidan 9an/

SE

SA

She ran away from home.

/harabat ba9iidan 9an baytihaa/

(ran away far from home)

Meaning

The meaning denoted by the preposition away from is "separation".

To denote the same meaning, the construction /ba9iidan 9an/ is used.

Problems

No problems are expected here since the compound preposition away from and the Arabic construction "ba9iidan 9an" are equivalent.

7.2.16. Before

/qabla/

SE

SA

The tea had been set before her.

/?uhdira ?aljaayu ?amaamahaa/

(been set the tea in front of her)

Meaning

The meaning denoted by the preposition before is "in front of".

To indicate the same meaning, the preposition /?amaama/ is used

Problems

There will be a problem of avoidance here. The students may try to avoid using before because its equivalent /qabla/ is not used to

denote this sense in Arabic. The preposition in front of may be used here since it is the literal translation of the Arabic preposition /?amaama/ which is used to denote this meaning.

7.2.17. Behind

/waraa?a/xalfa

SE

SA

a. There is a garden behind
the house.

/hunaaka hadiiqatun xalfa/waraa?a
?albayti/
(there is a garden behind the
house)

Meaning

The preposition behind is
used to denote the meaning
"at the back of".

To denote the same meaning,
either the preposition /xalfa/
or /waraa?a/ is used.

Problems:

There will no problem if the students only think of behind as the literal translation of /waraa?a/ and /xalafa/. But if they think of the other possible translation, i.e. after (see P. 238), there will be a problem of replacement. The preposition after will be used instead of behind.

SE

SA

b. There is someone
behind the curtain.

/hunaaka ʃaxsun xalfa/
waraa?a?alsitaarati/
(there someone after/

behind the curtain)

Meaning

The sense denoted by the preposition behind is "at the back of and hidden or screened by".

Either the preposition /xalfa/ or /waraa?a/ is used to indicate the same meaning.

Problems

See (a) above.

7.2.18. Below

/tahta/

SE

SA

a. He had a bruise just below his left eye.

/9indahu 9alaamatun tahta
9aynihi ?alyusraa/
(has he a bruise below eye his
the left)

Meaning

The preposition below is used to denote the meaning "lower in position than".

The same meaning is denoted by the preposition /tahta/.

Problems

There will be no problem here if the students think of below and /tahta/ as equivalent. However, the students are sometimes confused about whether to use under, below, beneath, or underneath. The cause of this confusion is twofold. First, the Arabic preposition /tahta/

translate all of the four prepositions above. The second reason is the overlapping of these four prepositions (see P. 139).

SE

b. Their school is about
100 yards below the
library.

SA

/taqa9u madrasatahum ba9da
?almaktabati bihawaali mi?ati
tira9in/
(situated school their after
the library in about 100 yards)

Meaning

The meaning denoted by the
preposition below is "at a
position on the other side of".

To denote the same meaning,
the preposition /ba9da/ is
used.

Problems

The students may face a problem of replacement here. The preposition after may be used instead of below since it is the literal translation of the Arabic preposition /ba9da/ which is used to denote this sense.

7.2.19. Beneath

/tahta/SE

a. They sheltered beneath
their umbrellas.

SA

/?ihtamuu tahta majallaatihim/
(sheltered they under/beneath/
below/underneath umbrellas
their

Meaning

The preposition beneath is

The preposition /tahta/ is used

used to indicate the meaning
"under".

to denote the same meaning.

Problems

See below (a).

SE

b. There is a rose bush
beneath the window.

SA

/hunaaka ʃujayratu wardin tahta
ʔalʃubbaaki/
(there flowers under/beneath/
below/underneath the window)

Meaning

The meaning denoted by
the preposition beneath
is "at the foot of".

The same meaning is denoted
by the preposition /tahta/.

Problems

See below (a).

SE

c. He was hit beneath his
knee.

SA

/duriba tahta rukbatih/ .
(was hit under/beneath/below
underneath knee his)

Meaning

To denote the meaning "lower
in position than", the
preposition beneath is used.

The same meaning is denoted
by the preposition /tahta/.

Problems

See below (a).

7.2.20. **Beside**

/bijaanibi/janba/

SE

SA

There was an old mill
beside the stream.

/hunaaka mathanatum qadiimatun
bijaanibi/janba ?alnahri/
(there a mill old beside
the river)

Meaning

The preposition beside is
used to denote the meaning
"at or by the side of".

To indicate the same sense,
either the preposition
/bijaanibi/ or /janba/ is used.

Problems

No problems are expected here since the preposition beside is the
literal translation of the two prepositions /janba/ and /bijaanibi/.

7.2.21. **Between**

/bayna/

SE

SA

a. The road between the
two valleys was blocked
by the snow.

/laqad ?aglaqa ?aløalju
?altariiqa ?alkaa?ina bayna
?alwaadiyayn/
(that blocked the snow the
road situated between the
two valleys)

Meaning

The meaning conveyed by the preposition between is "having one of two things on either side".

The same meaning is denoted by the preposition /bayna/.

Problems

No problems are expected here since the two prepositions between and /bayna/ are equivalent.

SE

b. There are many stations between London and Glasgow.

SA

/hunaaka mahattaatun kaøiiratun bayna lenden waglaasko/
(there stations many between London and Glasgow)

Meaning

The preposition between is used to indicate the meaning "within the distance separating two places".

To denote the same meaning, the preposition /bayna/ is used.

Problems

See (a) above.

SE

c. He was walking cautiously between the trees.

SA

/kaana yamʃii hatiran bayna ʔalʔaʃjaari/
(was walking cautiously between the trees)

Meaning

The preposition between is used to convey the idea of "moving in the space separating many objects".

The same meaning is indicated by the preposition /bayna/.

Problems: see (a) above.

7.2.22. Beyond

no exact equivalent

SESA

Don't go beyond that mountain.

/laataṭḥab ʔab9adu min taalika
ʔaljabali/
(not go farther from that the
mountain)

Meaning

The preposition beyond is used to indicate "past or on the further side of".

The construction /ʔab9adu min/
is used to indicate rather
a similar meaning.

Problems

Since in Arabic there is no exact equivalent of the preposition beyond, students will turn to the construction /ʔab9adu min/. This will raise two types of problems, namely, replacement and addition. The first will occur if the students translate /ʔab9adu min/ into "far from". Alternatively, if they equate /ʔab9adu/ and beyond, they may add the preposition from, the equivalent of /min/, after beyond to form a compound preposition (beyond from) similar to /ʔab9adu min/.

7.2.23. By

no exact equivalent

SESA

a. I like to sit by the
fire.

/ʔuhibbu ʔan ʔajlusa qurba/janba
/bijaanibi ʔalnaari/
(like I that sit near/beside the
fire)

Meaning

The preposition by is used
to indicate the meaning
"near" or "at the side of".

To denote the same meaning,
the prepositions /qurba/,
/janba/ or /bijaanibi/ are used.

Problems

There may be a problem of avoidance here since the preposition by has no direct counterpart in Arabic. Students would use either near or beside, the literal translations of the prepositions /qurba/, /janba/ and /bijaanibi/, instead of by.

SESA

b. The man has just gone by
the window.

/marra ʔalrajulu qurba/janba/
bijaanibi ʔalʔubbaaki/
(passed the man near/beside
the window)

Meaning

The meaning indicated by the
the preposition by is "past".

This sense can be indicated by
the use of either /qurba/,
or /bijaanibi/.

Problems

See (a) above.

SE

c. They came by the fields.

SA

/jaa?uu 9an tariiqi ?alhuquuli/

(came they from road the fields)

Meaning

The meaning indicated by
the preposition by is "via".

To denote the same meaning,
the construction /9an tariiqi/
is used.

Problems

There will be no problem if the students think of the preposition by as the appropriate translation of the Arabic construction /9an tariiqi/ in denoting this sense. However, there may be two types of problems, addition and replacement, if they literally translate the construction /9an tariiqi/. They may either add the word "way" after the preposition by, forming a compound preposition similar to the Arabic, or the preposition from, the counterpart of /min/, might be used instead of by.

7.2.24. Down

/?asfala/?ilaa ?asfali/

SE

They ran down the hill.

SA

/rakaduu ?asfala/?ilaa ?asfali

?altalli/

(ran they down/to down the hill)

Meaning

The preposition down is used to indicate the meaning "moving from a higher to a lower level".

To denote the same meaning, either /?asfala/ or the compound preposition /?ilaa ?asfali/ is used.

Problems

There will be no problem if the students think of the prepositions /?asfala/?ilaa ?asfali/ and down as counterparts in denoting this sense. But if they literally translate the compound preposition /?ilaa ?asfali/, there will be a problem of addition. The students may add the preposition to, the equivalent of /?ilaa/, before down, forming a compound preposition similar to the Arabic one.

SE

b. He lived down that hill.

SA

/sakana ?asfala taalika
?altalli/
(lived he down that the hill)

Meaning

The preposition down is used to indicate the meaning "at or in a lower part".

The preposition /?asfala/ is used to indicate the same meaning.

Problems

No problems are expected since the two prepositions /asfala/ and down

are equivalent.

SE

c. Don't run down the street.

SA

/laatakud bihaataa

?al?ittijaahi/

(Don't run in this direction)

Meaning

The meaning denoted by the preposition down is "away from where one is at the time of speaking".

Neither /?asfala/ nor /?ilaa ?asafali/ can be used in Arabic to denote this sense. To convey such an idea, the construction /bi + ?ittijaahi/ is used.

Problems

There will be a problem of avoidance here since this sense cannot be denoted by the prepositions /?asfala/ and /?ilaa ?asfali/. The literal translation of the above English sentence into Arabic will be nonsensical. Thus, the students may use the construction "in this direction", the literal translation of the Arabic construction /bihaataa ?a?ittijaahi/, instead of down:

7.2.25. Facing

SE

He bought a house facing the theatre.

/muqaabila/qubaalata/

SA

/?i?taraa baytan muqaabila/

qubaalata ?almasrahi/

(bought he a house facing/

opposite the theatre)

Meaning

The preposition facing is used to indicate the meaning "looking towards something".

Either the preposition /muqaabila/ or /qubaalata/ is used to indicate the same meaning.

Problems

There will be no problem if the students know that the prepositions facing and /muqaabila/qubaalata/ are equivalent. However, a problem of avoidance is expected here since the preposition facing is not commonly used in English. The students may use the preposition opposite instead of it.

It is worth mentioning that, in Arabic, there is another means of indicating this sense. The adjective /muttillun/ (looking towards) followed by the preposition /9alaa/ (on) is often used to convey the same idea, e.g.

/kaana yaskuna fii baytin muttillin 9alaa ?albahri/

(was living in a house facing on the sea)

He was living in a house facing the sea.

If the students literally translate this construction, they may add the preposition on after the preposition facing.

7.2.26. For

/laam/?ilaa/

SE

SA

Passengers for Glasgow

/?almusaafiruun 2ilaa/liglasko

change at Crewe.

yubaddiluuna fii kru/
(the passengers for/to Glasgow
change in Crewe)

Meaning

The preposition for
is used to indicate
"destination".

To indicate the same meaning,
either the preposition /laam/
or /?ilaa/ is used.

Problems

There will be no problem if the students think of the two prepositions /laam/ and for as equivalent in sense in the two languages. However, if they translate /?ilaa/, which is more often used than /laam/, there will be a problem of replacement. The students may use the preposition to, the equivalent of /?ilaa/, instead of for.

7.2.27. From

/min/

SE

SA

a. The train leaves from
there.

/yugaadiru ?alqitaaru min
hunaaka/
(leave the train from there)

Meaning

The preposition from is
used to indicate a point
or place of departure.

To indicate the same meaning,
the preposition /min/ is used.

Problems

No problems are expected here since the two prepositions from and /min/ are equivalent.

SE

b. Tea comes from India.

SA

/ya?ti ?aljaayu min ?alhindi/
(come the tea from the India)

Meaning

The meaning indicated by
the preposition from is
"a source or place of origin".

The same meaning is indicated
by the preposition /min/.

Problems

See (a) above.

SE

c. He jumped from that
window.

SA

/qafaza min taalika ?aljubbaaki/
(jumped he from that the window)

Meaning

The meaning indicated by
the preposition from is
"the place from which an
activity starts or a
movement is made".

To denote the same meaning
the preposition /min/ is used.

Problems

See (a) above.

SE

d. There is a nail projecting
from the wall.

SA

/hunaaka mismaarun xaarijun
min ?aljidaari/
(there a nail projecting from

the wall)

Meaning

The preposition from is used to denote the location to which something is attached.

The same meaning is indicated by the preposition /min/.

Problems

See (a) above.

7.2.28. In front of

/?amaama/

SE

SA

a. There was a dog lying in front of the fire.

/hunaaka kalbun mudtaji9un
?amaama ?alnaari/
(there a dog lying in front of
the fire)

Meaning

The meaning conveyed by the preposition in front of is "before" (denoting position).

To denote the same meaning, the preposition /?amaama/ is used.

Problems

No problems are expected here since the two prepositions in front of and /?amaama/ are equivalent in denoting this sense.

SE

SA

b. There was a cloud in front of the moon.

a. /hunaaka gaymatun ?amaama
?alqamari/

(there a cloud in front of
the moon)

b. /hunaaka gaymatun hajabat
?alqamara/

(there a cloud screened the moon)

There was a cloud that screened
the moon.

Meaning

The preposition in front
of is used here to denote
the meaning "before and
covering or obscuring".

Either the preposition
/?amaama/(a) or the verb
/hajaba/(b) is used to
denote the same meaning.

Problems

There will be no problem if the students think of sentence (a) above.
However, there will be a problem of avoidance if they think of (b).
The students may avoid using the preposition in front of and use the
verb /hajaba/, which is more often used in Arabic to convey such a
meaning.

SE

c. She ran quickly and got
in front of the girls.

SA

/rakadat bisur9atin wa?asbahat
?amaama/qabla ?albanaati/
(ran she quickly and became
in front of/before the girls)

Meaning

The preposition in front of is used to indicate the meaning "ahead of".

To denote the same meaning, either the preposition /?amaama/ or /qabla/ is used.

Problems

There is no problem here if the students think of /?amaama/ and in front of as equivalent in denoting this sense. But there will be a problem of replacement if they think of the other option, i.e. /qabla/. They may use before, the literal translation of /qabla/, instead of in front of.

SE

d. I couldn't tell you anything in front of Sam.

SA

/laa?astatii9u ?an ?aquula
laka Jay?an ?amaama saam/
(cannot I to tell you anything
in front of Sam)

Meaning

The meaning indicated by the preposition in front of is "in the presence of".

The same meaning is denoted by the preposition /?amaama/.

Problems

See (a) above.

7.2.29. In

/fii/

SE

SA

a. The horses are in the
fields.

/?alxaylu fii ?alhaqli/
(the horses in the field)

Meaning

The preposition in is
used to indicate "location".

The same meaning is indicated
by /fii/.

Problems

No problems are expected here since the two prepositions in and /fii/ are equivalent.

SE

SA

b. She put her money in
her bag.

/wada9at nuquudahaa fii
haqiibatihaa/
(put she money her in bag her)

Meaning

The meaning indicated is
by the preposition in
"entry or placing within
a place or area".

The preposition /fii/ indicates
the same meaning.

Problems

See (a) above.

SE

SA

c. There was a nail in the
wall.

/hunaaka mismaarun fii
?aljidaari/

(there a nail in the wall)

Meaning

The preposition in is used to express the idea of "holding", "fastened with" or "projecting from".

The preposition /fii/ is used to convey the same meaning.

Problems

See (a) above.

7.2.30. Inside

SE

a. He was waiting for us inside the cinema.

/daaxila/fii daaxili/

SA

/kaana yantadirunaa daaxila/fii
daaxili saalati ?alsiinamaa/
(was waiting us inside the
cinema)

Meaning

The meaning indicated by the preposition inside is "within".

Either the preposition /daaxila/ or the compound preposition /fii daaxili/ is used to indicate the same meaning.

Problems

No problems are expected here since the translation of both prepositions, /daaxila/ and /fii daaxili/, is inside.

SE

b. He put his name inside
the cover of the book.

SA

/wada9a ?ismahu fii gilaafi

?alkitaabi/

(Put he name his in cover the
book)

Meaning

The meaning indicated by
the preposition inside is
"on the inner side of or
to a position at the
inner side of".

This meaning is indicated
by the preposition /fii/.

Problems

There could be a problem of avoidance here since neither the
preposition /daaxila/ nor the compound preposition /fii daaxili/ is
used to convey this meaning. The students may use the preposition in,
the literal translation of /fii/, instead of inside.

7.2.31. Into

no exact equivalent

SESA

a. He followed her into
the room.

/tabi9ahaa daaxila li/?ilaa

daaxili ?algurfati/

(followed he her inside/to
inside the room)

Meaning

The preposition into is

Either the preposition /daaxila/

used to indicate the
meaning "towards and then
entry or insertion in".

or the compound preposition
/li/ilaa daaxili/ is used to
indicate this meaning.

Problems

There will be two types of problems here, namely, replacement and addition. If the students think of /daaxila/, they will use its English counterpart inside instead of into. But if they literally translate the compound preposition /laam/?ilaa daaxili/, they may add the preposition to before the preposition inside, forming a compound preposition similar to the Arabic one.

SE

b. They crashed into the
wall.

SA

/?istadamuu bi?aljidaari/
(crashed they in the wall)

Meaning

The preposition into is
used to indicate the
meaning "against".

To denote the same meaning
in Arabic, the preposition
/baa?/ is used.

Problems

There will be a problem of replacement here. The students may use the preposition in, the literal translation of /baa?/, instead of into.

7.2.32. Near (to)

/qurba/

SESA

They live in a house
near (to) the park.

/yaskunuuna fii baytin qurba

?almutanazzahi/

(live they in a house near the
 park)

Meaning

The preposition near (to) is
 used to indicate "closeness,
 vicinity or proximity".

To denote the same meaning
 in Arabic, the preposition
 /qurba/ is used.

Problems

No problems are expected here since the two prepositions near (to) and
 /qurba/ are equivalent.

7.2.33. Next (to)

no exact equivalent

SESA

He came and sat next (to)
 me.

/jaa?a wajalasa janbii/
bijaanibi/

(came he and sat beside me)

Meaning

The preposition next (to)
 is used to indicate the
 meaning "immediately beside".

Either the preposition /janba/
 or /bijaanibi/ is used to
 indicate the same meaning.

Problems

There will be a problem of avoidance here since, in Arabic, there is

no exact equivalent of the preposition next (to). The students may use beside, the literal translation of the Arabic prepositions /janba/ and /bijaanibi/, instead of next (to).

7.2.34.

Of

/9an/

SESA

a. We were within two miles
of the station when our car
broke down.

/kunnaa bihuduudi miilayni
9an/min ?almahattati 9indamaa
ta9attalat markabatunaa/
(there we within two miles from
the station when car our broke)

Meaning

The meaning indicated by
of is "the distance from
a given point".

Either the preposition /9an/
or /min/ is used to convey
the same meaning.

Problems

There will be no problem here if the students think of /9an/ and of as equivalent in denoting this sense. However, if they think of the other option, i.e. /min/, there will be a problem of replacement. The students may use from, the literal translation of /min/, instead of of.

SESA

b. We live 40 miles south
of London.

/naskunu 9alaa bu9di ?arba9iina
miilan januuba/2ilaa ?aljanuubi
min lenden/

(live we on distance 40 miles
south/to the south from London)

Meaning

The preposition of is used
 to indicate position or
 direction.

Either the preposition /januuba/
 or the construction /?ilaa
 ?aljanuubi min/ is used to
 convey this meaning.

Problems

There are three possible problems here, namely, omission, addition and replacement. If the students think of /januuba/, they will omit the preposition of, because the literal translation of this Arabic preposition /januuba/ is "south" and not "south of". If they think of the construction /?ilaa ?aljanuubi min/, they may add the preposition to, the counterpart of /?ilaa/, before "south" and use from, the equivalent of /min/, instead of of.

7.2.35. Off

no exact equivalent

SE

SA

a. The picture fell off
 the wall.

/saqatat ?alsuuratu min
 ?aljidaari/

(fell the picture from the wall)

Meaning

The meaning denoted by the
 preposition off is "from
 whatever is mentioned".

This meaning is indicated
 by the preposition /min/.

Problems

There will be a problem of replacement here since, in Arabic, there is no exact equivalent of the preposition off. The students may use from, the literal translation of /min/, instead of off. Sometimes, to denote a similar sense in Arabic, the compound preposition /min 9alaa/ (from on) is used, e.g.

/saqaṭat ʔalkutubu min 9alaa ʔalraffi/

(fell the books from on the shelf)

The books fell off the shelf.

Thus, if the students think of this option, they will use the incorrect compound preposition "from on", the literal translation of /min 9alaa/, instead of off.

SE

b. The ship was off the island.

SA

/kaanat ʔalbaaxiratu ba9iidatan

9an ʔaljaziirati/

(was the ship away from the island)

Meaning

The preposition off is used to indicate the meaning "away from".

To indicate the same meaning in Arabic, the construction /ba9iidatan 9an/ is used.

Problems

Again, there will be a problem of replacement here. The students may use the compound preposition away from, the literal translation of the Arabic construction /bi9iidan 9an/, instead of off.

7.2.36. On

/9alaa/

SE

SA

a. The dog was sleeping on
the mat.

/kaana ?alkalbu naa?iman 9alaa
?alsijjaadati/
(was the dog sleeping on the
mat)

Meaning

The meaning indicated
by the preposition on is
"position in relation to
another object".

The same meaning is denoted
by the preposition /9alaa/.

Problems

No problems are expected here since the two prepositions on and
/9alaa/ are equivalent.

SE

SA

b. She knocked on the door.

/taraqat 9alaa ?albaabi/
(knocked she on the door)

Meaning

The meaning conveyed by the
preposition on is "a location
which is the recipient of an
activity".

To indicate the same meaning
in Arabic, the preposition
/9alaa/ is used.

Problems

See (a) above.

SE

c. Baghdad stands on the
Tigris.

SA

/taqa9 bagdaadu 9alaa dijlata/
(stand Baghdad on Tigris)

Meaning

The preposition on is used
to denote the place where
something stands or is
situated.

The preposition /9alaa/
indicates the same meaning.

Problems

See (a) above.

SE

d. The roof of the
building is supported
on four pillars.

SA

/yartakizu saqfa ?albinaayati
9alaa ?arba9i ?a9midatin/
(supported ceiling the
building on four pillars)

Meaning

The preposition on is
used to convey the idea
of "a means of support
from beneath".

The same meaning is conveyed
by the preposition /9alaa/.

Problems

See (a) above.

SE

e. Take the first turning
on your left.

SA

/xuf ?awwala ?istidaaratin
9alaa yasaarika/
(take first turning on left
your)

Meaning

The meaning conveyed
by the preposition on
"direction or relation
to some person or object".

The same meaning is
indicated by the
preposition /9alaa/.

Problems

See (a) above.

7.2.37. Onto

SE

The boys jumped onto the
ice and played on it.

no exact equivalent

SA

/qafaza ?al?awlaadu 9alaa
?aljaliidi wala9ibuu 9alayhi/
(jumped the boys on the ice
and played on it)

Meaning

The preposition onto is used
to indicate motion towards
the upper surface of something.

The same meaning is indicated
by the preposition /9alaa/.

Problems

There will be a problem of replacement here since, in Arabic, there is
no exact equivalent of the preposition onto. The students may use the

preposition on, the literal translation of /9alaa/ which is used to denote this sense, instead of onto.

7.2.38. Opposite (to)

/muqaabila/qubaalata/

SE

SA

a. The hotel was opposite
(to) a railway station.

/kaana ?alfunduqu muqaabila/
qubaalata mahattatin lilqitaari/
(was the hotel opposite a railway
station)

Meaning

The meaning indicated by
the preposition opposite (to)
is "on the side opposed to
and facing".

Either the preposition
/muqaabila/ or /qubaalata/
is used to indicate the
same meaning.

Problems

There will be no problem if the students think of opposite (to) and /muqaabila/qubaalata/ as equivalent. However, students may be confused about whether to use opposite, facing, in front of or before. The cause of this confusion is twofold: firstly, there is overlapping between these four prepositions in English; secondly, the Arabic prepositions /muqaabila/qubaalata/ are equivalent in meaning to all of the English words.

SE

SA

b. There was a mark opposite
(to) his name.

/hunaaka 9alaamatun muqaabila/
qubaalata/?izaa?a ?ismihi/
(there a mark opposite name his)

Meaning

The preposition opposite (to) is used to indicate the meaning "next to" or "on the same line".

The same meaning is conveyed by the prepositions /muqaabila/, /qubaalata/ or /?izaa?a/.

Problems

No problems are expected here since the prepositions /muqaabila/qubaalata/?izaa?a/ and opposite (to) are equivalent.

7.2.39. Out of

no exact equivalent

SE

SA

a. She fell out of her cot.

/saqatat min mahdihaa/
(fell down she from cot her)

Meaning

The preposition out of is used to express the meaning "from within" or "from inside".

The preposition /min/ can indicate the same meaning.

Problems

There could be a problem of replacement here since, in Arabic, there is no exact equivalent of the preposition out of. Instead of out of, the students may use from, the literal translation of the preposition /min/, which is used to indicate this sense.

SE

SA

b. The burglar came out of

/xaraja ?allissu min ?albaabi/

of the door.

(came out the burglar from
the door)

Meaning

The meaning indicated by
the preposition out of
here is "from or through
something to the outside".

The preposition /min/ indicates
the same meaning.

Problems

See (a) above.

SE

c. Could you take it out of
the fridge for me?

SA

/hal tastatii9a ?ixraajahaa
lii min ?aløallaajati/
(could you take it out for me
from the fridge?/

Meaning

The preposition out of is
used to express the idea of
"removing something from
the place where it is
enclosed or stored".

The preposition /min/ preceded
by the verb/?axraja/ can convey
the same meaning.

Problems

See (a) above.

SE

d. A nail was sticking
out of the wall.

SA

/hunaaka mismaarun xaarijun
min ?aljidaari/
(there a nail sticking from the
wall)

Meaning

The preposition out of is
used to express the idea of
"projection from a surface or
an object".

The same meaning is indicated
by the preposition /min/.

Problems

See (a) above.

SE

e. They had an accident
a few miles out of
Baghdad

SA

/hadaʕat lahum haadiʕatun
xaarija bagdaad bibidʕati/
?amyaaalin/
(happened to them accident
outside Baghdad in a few
miles)

Meaning

The sense denoted by
the preposition out of
is "distance from a
specified place".

The same meaning is
indicated by the
preposition /xaarija/.

Problems

Again, there will be a problem of replacement here. The students may use the preposition outside, the literal translation of /xaarija/, instead of out of.

7.2.40. Outside (of)

/xaarija/

SE

SA

He is waiting for her
outside (of) the college.

/kaana yantadiruhaa xaarija
?alkulliyati/
(was waiting her outside the
college)

Meaning

The meaning indicated by the
preposition outside (of) is
"at or on the outer side of".

The same meaning is denoted
by the preposition /xaarija/.

Problems

No problems are expected here since the two prepositions outside (of) and /xaarija/ are equivalent.

7.2.41. Over .

/fawqa/

SE

SA

a. The sky is over our
heads.

/?alsamaa?u fawqa ru?uusinaa/
(the sky over/above heads our)

Meaning

The preposition over is
used to indicate the

The same meaning is indicated
by the preposition /fawqa/.

meaning "directly above".

Problems

There will be no problem if the students think of over and /fawqa/ as equivalent. However, the students may be confused about whether to use above or over. This confusion is due to overlapping between these two prepositions in English as well as the fact that the Arabic preposition /fawqa/ represents both of them (see above).

SJ

b. She spread a piece of cloth over the table.

SA

/faraʃat qitʔata qimaʃin fawqa/
ʔalaa ʔalminɗadati/
 (spread she a piece cloth over/
above/on the table)

Meaning

The meaning indicated by over is "above and covering".

To denote the same meaning, either the preposition /fawqa/ or /ʔalaa/ is used.

Problems

Apart from the problem mentioned in (a) above, there will be a problem of replacement if the students think of the preposition /ʔalaa/. They may use the preposition on, the literal translation of /ʔalaa/, instead of over.

SE

c. The burglar put a mask over his face.

SA

/wadaʔa ʔallissu qinaaʔan
 /ʔalaa wajhihi/

(put the burglar a mask on
face his)

Meaning

The preposition over is used
to indicate the meaning "in
front of and covering".

The preposition /9alaa/ is used
to denote the same meaning.

Problems

There will be a problem of replacement here since the preposition /fawqa/ is not used to convey this meaning in Arabic. The students may use the preposition on, the literal translation of /9alaa/, instead of over.

SE

d. We climbed over the gate.

SA

/tasallaqnaa fawqa/9alaa/min
fawqi/min 9alaa ?albawaabati/
(climbed we over/on/from over/
from on the gate)

Meaning

The preposition over is
used indicate the meaning
"above and onto the other
side".

To convey the same idea,
the prepositions /fawqa/,
/9alaa/, /min fawqi/ or
/min 9alaa/ is used.

Problems

There will be no problem if the students think of over and /fawqa/ as equivalent. But if they think of the other options, there will be two

types of problem, namely, replacement and addition. The students may add the preposition from, the literal translation of /min/, before over if they think of /min fawqi/. On the other hand, if they think of /9alaa/ and /min 9alaa/, they may use either on or from on, the literal translation of /min/ and /min 9alaa/, instead of over.

SE

e. The child fell over the cliff.

SA

/saqata ?altiflu min ?aljurfi/
(fell the child from the cliff)

Meaning

The meaning indicated by the preposition over here is "downwards from the edge of".

To indicate the same meaning the preposition /min/ is used.

Problems

There will be a problem of replacement here since the preposition /fawqa/ (over/above) is not used in Arabic to convey this meaning. The students may use the preposition from, the literal translation of the Arabic preposition /min/, instead of over.

SE

f. He fell over the chair.

SA

/saqata fawqa/9alaa ?alkursiyyi/
(fell he over/above/on the chair)

Meaning

The meaning indicated by the preposition over is

The same meaning can be indicated by either /fawqa/

"as the result of a
collision".

or /9alaa/.

Problems

See (b) above.

SE

g. He walked over the road
to greet me.

SA

/9abara ?altariiqa liyuhayyiini/
(crossed the road to greet me)

Meaning

The preposition over is
used to indicate the
meaning "across" or "from
one side to the other".

The same meaning is denoted
by the verb /9abara/.

Problems

There may be a problem of avoidance here. The students may try to avoid using the preposition over since its Arabic counterpart /fawqa/ is not used to denote this meaning. The verb /9abara/(crossed) is used to denote this sense (see P. 235).

SE

h. The sun disappeared over
the horizon. .

SA

/?ixtafat ?al/amsu waraa?a/fii
?alufiqi/
(disappeared the sun behind/in
the horizon)

Meaning

The preposition over is used to indicate the meaning "beyond".

The same meaning is indicated by either /fii/ or /waraa?a/

Problems

There may be a problem of replacement here since the Arabic preposition /fawqa/(over,above) is not used to indicate this sense in Arabic. The students may use either behind or in, the literal translations of the Arabic prepositions /waraa?a/ and /fii/, instead of over.

7.2.42. / Past

no exact equivalent

SE

SA

a. The soldiers marched past the church.

/marra ?aljunuudu bilkaniisati/
(passed the soldiers by the church)

Meaning

The preposition past is used to express the idea of "passing by someone or something".

The same meaning is denoted by the verb /marra/(pass) followed by the preposition /baa?/.

Problems

There will be a problem of avoidance here since, in Arabic, there is no exact equivalent of the preposition past. The students may use the construction "passed by", the literal translation of the Arabic

construction /marra + baa?/, instead of the preposition past.

SE

b. The theatre was past the post office.

SA

/kaana ?almasrahu ba9da
daa?irati ?albariidi/
(was the theatre after the post office)

Meaning

The meaning indicated by the preposition past is "beyond".

The preposition /ba9da/ indicates the same meaning.

Problems

There will be a problem of replacement here. The students may use the preposition after, the literal translation of the Arabic preposition /ba9da/, instead of past.

7.2.43. Through

/xilaala/

SE

a. The rain poured through the roof.

SA

/nazala ?almataru min ?alsaqfi/
(poured the rain from the roof)

Meaning

The preposition through is used to express the idea of penetration.

The same meaning is denoted by the preposition /min/.

Problems

There will be a problem of avoidance here since the Arabic preposition /xilaala/ is not used to indicate this sense. The students may use the preposition from, the literal translation of the Arabic preposition /min/, instead of through.

SE

b. They used to travel to
Mecca through the desert.

SA

/ʔi9taaduu ʔan yusaafiruu
ʔilaa maccata 9abra/
9an tariiqi ʔalsahraaʔi/
(used they travel they to mecca
across/by way of the desert)

Meaning

The preposition through is
used to express the idea of
"penetration, or partial
penetration, of something
by which one is surrounded".

To indicate the same meaning
either /9abra/ or /9an tariiqi/
is used.

Problems

There will be another problem of avoidance here. The students may use either across or "by way of", the literal translations of /9abra/ and /9an /tariiqi/, instead of through.

SE

c. The missile went flying
through the air.

SA

/ʔintalaqa ʔalsaaruuxu taaʔiran
fii ʔalhawaaʔi/

(went the missile in the air)

Meaning

The preposition through is used to indicate the meaning "by way of".

To indicate the same meaning, the preposition /fii/ is used.

Problems

There will be a problem of replacement here. The students may use the preposition in, the literal translation of /fii/, instead of through.

SE

d. The train from Glasgow to London passes through Carlisle.

SA

/yamurru qitaaru glasko-lenden
9abra/bi/fii kaarlaayil/
 (pass train Glasgow-London
across/in Carlisle)

Meaning

The idea expressed by the preposition through is "the point by way of which something passes on a course or route".

The prepositions /9abra/, /fii/ and /baa?/ are used to denote this meaning.

Problems

There will be another problem of replacement here. The students may use either across or in, the literal translations of /9abra/ and /fii/baa?/, instead of through.

SE

e. He was looking through
the window to see them.

SA

/kaana yanduru xilaala/min
xilaali/min ?aljubbaaki
liru?yatihim/
(was looking he through/from
through/from the window to see
them)

Meaning

The preposition through is
used to express the notion
of using something as a
medium.

The prepositions /xilaala/,
/min xilaali/ and /min/ are
used to convey the same idea.

Problems

There will be no problem if the students think of through and /xilaala/ as equivalent in denoting this sense. But, if they think of the other two options, i.e. /min xilaali/ and /min/, there could be two types of problem, namely, addition and replacement. If they think of /min xilaali/, they may add the preposition from before through to form a compound preposition similar to the Arabic one. The other type of problem will occur if the students think of /min/, because they may then use its equivalent from instead of through.

7.2.44. Throughout

no exact equivalent

SE

A search was made throughout
his house.

SA

/laqad ?ujrya taftii?an jaamilan
fii/libaytihi/

(that was made a search thorough
in/for house his)

Meaning

The meaning denoted by the
 preposition throughout is
 "in every part of some
 specified place".

Either the preposition /fii/
 or /laam/ is used with the
 adjective /jaamilan/ (thorough)
 to indicate the same meaning.

Problems

There will be a problem of replacement here since the preposition
throughout has no exact equivalent in Arabic. The students may use
 either the preposition in or for, the literal translations of the
 Arabic prepositions /fii/ and /laam/, instead of throughout.

Sometimes, the preposition /9alaa/(on) followed by the adjective
 /kulli/(whole) is used to express this idea, e.g.

SE

A description of the thief
 was circulated throughout
 the country.

SA

/laqad 9ummimat ?aw9aafu ?allissi
9alaa kulli ?albilaadi/
 (that circulated description the
 thief on whole the country)

In this case, the preposition on followed by the adjective "whole"
 might be used instead of throughout.

7.2.45. To

/ʔilaa/laam/

SE

SA

The girl went to school.

/ʔahabat ʔalbintu ʔilaa/li

ʔalmdrasati/

(went the girl to the school)

Meaning

The meaning conveyed by the preposition to is "in the direction of" or "towards".

The same meaning is indicated by the prepositions /ʔilaa/ and /laam/.

Problems

No problems are expected here since the two prepositions to and /ʔilaa/laam/ are equivalent.

SE

SA

b. I travelled to France
last year.

/saafartu ilaa/lifaransaa

ʔal9aam ʔalmaadii/

(travelled I to France the year
the last)

Meaning

The preposition to is used to indicate the point of arrival or completion.

Either the preposition /ʔilaa/ or /laam/ can indicate the same meaning.

Problems

See (a) above.

SE

c. I will come with you
to the next stop.

SA

/sa?athabu ma9aka ?ilaa/li/
hattaa ?almantiqati ?alqaadimati/
(will go I with you to/until the
next stop)

Meaning

The meaning indicated by the
preposition to is "as far as".

To denote the same meaning
the prepositions /?ilaa/,
/laam/ and /hattaa/ are used.

Problems

There will be no problem if the students think of /?ilaa/ and /laam/
as mentioned in (a) above. But if they think of /hattaa/, there will
be a problem of replacement. The students may use the preposition
until, the literal translation of the Arabic preposition /hattaa/,
instead of to.

SE

d. She raised the glass
to her lips.

SA

/rafa9at ?alqadaha ?ilaa/
li9afatayhaa/
(raised she the glass to
lips her)

Meaning

The idea expressed by to
is "approaching towards
and in contact with".

The same meaning is indicated
by either /?ilaa/ or /laam/.

Problems

See (a) above.

7.2.46. Towards

SE

a. He saw his mother
running towards him.

/naḥwa/bi?ittijaahi/

SA

/ra?aa ?ummuhu ta9duu naḥwahu/
bi?ittijaahihi/
(saw he mother his running
towards him)

Meaning

The preposition toward(s) is
used to express the idea of
"in the direction of" or "to".

Either the preposition /naḥwa/
or /bi?ittijaahi/ is used to
indicate the same meaning.

Problems

No problems are expected here since the prepositions toward(s) and
/naḥwa/bi?ittijaahi/ are equivalent.

SE

b. We are coming towards
the end of the cave.

SA

/naḥnu nataqaddamu naḥwa/
bi?ittijaahi/min nihaayati
?alkahfi/
(we are coming toward(s)/from
end the cave)

Meaning

The meaning expressed by

To indicate the same meaning

the preposition towards
is "near" or "just before".

The prepositions /nahwa/,
/bi?ittijaahi/ and /min/ are
used.

Problems

There will be no problem if the students think of /nahwa/ and /bi?ittijaahi/ as mentioned in (a) above. But, if they think of the preposition /min/, which is more commonly used to denote this sense, there will be a problem of replacement. The students may use the preposition from, the literal translation of the preposition /min/, instead of toward(s).

7.2.47. Under

/tahta/

SE

SA

a. The policeman suspected
that the man had something
under his arm.

/ʃakka alʃurtiyyu bi?anna ?alrajula
yuxfii ʃay?an tahta tiraa9ihi.
(suspected the policeman that
the man hiding something under/
below/beneath/underneath arm his)

Meaning

The meaning indicated by
the preposition under is
"beneath".

The same meaning is indicated
by the preposition /tahta/.

Problems

See below (a).

SE

SA

b. We shall be out of the wind

/sanataxallasu min ?alriyaahi

if we stand under this wall.

?iṭaa waqafnaa bijaanibi/janba
haataa ?aljidaari/
(will get rid of we from the
wind if stand we beside this
wall)

Meaning

The preposition under is used
to denote the meaning "at the
foot of" or "close against".

To denote the same meaning,
either the preposition
/bijaanibi/ or /janba/ is used.

Problems

There will be a problem of replacement here since the Arabic
preposition /taḥta/ is not used to convey this idea. The students may
use the preposition beside, the literal translation of the two
prepositions /bijaanibi/ and /janba/, instead of under.

7.2.48. Underneath

/taḥta/

SE

SA

There was a cat sleeping
underneath the bed.

/kaanat hunaaka qittatun
naa?imatun taḥta ?alsariiri/
(was there a cat sleeping under/
below/beneath/underneath the bed)

Meaning

The preposition underneath
is used to denote the meanings
of under, below and beneath.

The preposition /taḥta/
indicates the same meaning.

Problems

See below (a).

7.2.49. Up

/?a9laa/?ilaa ?a9laa/

SESAa. They went up the hill.

/fahabuu ?a9laa/?ilaa ?a9laa

?altalli/

(went they up/to up the hill)Meaning

The preposition up is used
to express the idea of
"movement to a higher place".

To indicate the same meaning,
the preposition /?ilaa ?a9laa/
is used.

Problems

There will be no problem if the students think of the two prepositions up and /?a9laa/ as equivalent in denoting this sense. But if they literally translate /?ilaa ?a9laa/, there will be a problem of addition. The students may add the preposition to, the literal translation of /?ilaa/, before the preposition up to form a compound preposition similar to the Arabic one.

SE.SAb. They lived up the mountain.

/sakanuu ?a9laa ?aljabali/

(lived they up the mountain)Meaning

The meaning conveyed by
the preposition up is "at
a higher place".

The preposition /?a9laa/
denotes the same meaning.

Problems

No problems are expected here because the two prepositions up and /?a91aa/ are equivalent.

SE

c. Who is that man coming up
the road?

SA

/man taalika ?lrajulu ?alqaadimu
bihaataa ?al?ittijaahi/
(who that the man coming in
this direction?)

Meaning

The preposition up is used
to convey the meaning "going
up".

This meaning cannot be exactly
translated into Arabic. To
convey such an idea, the
preposition /baa?/ followed by
the noun /?ittijaah/ is used.

Problems

See down (c).

SE

d. The fleet sailed up the
river.

SA

/?abhara ?al?ustuulu 9aksa
tayyaari ?almaa?i/
(sailed the fleet opposite
current the water)

Meaning

The preposition up is used

To convey the same idea in

to indicate the meaning "in the direction (opposite) to the current.

Arabic, the preposition /9aks/ followed by the word /tayyaar/ (current) is used.

Problems

There will be a problem of replacement here. The students may use the preposition opposite, the translation of /9aks/, instead of up.

7.2.50. Upon

This preposition, as previously mentioned (p. 129), is used to denote the same spatial senses as the preposition on. Thus what is said about the preposition on (p.) is applicable to upon. However, the students may try to avoid upon and replace it by the preposition on, which is more often used in English.

7.2.51. Via

no exact equivalent

SE

SA

Go via this corridor if you want to go out.

/ʔiθab 9an tariiqi/bihaataa

?almamarri ʔiθaa ʔaridta

?alxuruuja/

(go by way/in this corridor if want you going out)

Meaning

The preposition via is used to indicate the meaning "by way of".

To indicate the same meaning, either the construction /9an tariiqi/ or the preposition /baaʔ/ is used.

Problems

There will be a problem of avoidance here since, in Arabic, there is no exact equivalent of the preposition via. The students would use either the construction "by way" or the preposition in, the literal translation of /9an tariiqi/ and /baa?/, instead of via.

7.2.52. Within

no exact equivalent

SESA

a. All was quiet within the house.

/kullu ʃayʔin kaana haadiʔan

fii/daaxila/fii daaxili

ʔalbayti/

(all was quiet in/inside the house)

Meaning

The preposition within is used to denote the meaning "inside".

To indicate the same meaning the prepositions /fii/, /daaxila/ and /fii daaxili/ are used.

Problems

There will be a problem of avoidance here since the preposition within has no exact equivalent in Arabic. The students would use either the preposition in or inside, the literal translations of /fii/ and /daaxila/fii daaxili/, instead of within.

SESA

b. In the Middle Ages, people

/kaana ʔalnaasu fii ʔal9u9uuri

always lived within the
walls of their towns.

?alwustaa ya9ii/uuna daaxila
?aswaari mudunihim daa?iman/
(were the people in the Ages the
Middle live inside walls towns
their always)

Meaning

The preposition within
is used to denote the
meaning "inside specified
bounds or limits".

The same meaning is
indicated by the
preposition /daaxila/.

Problems

The same type of problem mentioned in (a) above will be repeated here.
The students may use the preposition inside instead of within.

SE

c. We were within a few
miles of home when the
accident occurred.

SA

/kunnaa bihuduudi/9alaa masaafati
bid9ati ?amyaalin 9an buyuutinaa
9indamaa waqa9at ?alhaadiøatu/
(were we within/on distance
a few miles of home when
occurred the accident)

Meaning

The meaning indicated by
the preposition within is
"just short of by a

To denote the same meaning,
either the construction
/bihuduudi/ or /9alaa masaafati/

specified amount of is used.
distance".

Problems

There will be no problem if the students think of within and /biħuduudi/ as equivalent. But if they think of the construction /9alaa masaafati/, there may be a problem of replacement. The students may use the construction "on distance", the literal translation of /9alaa masaafati/, instead of within.

This chapter has dealt with CA, i.e. the comparison of all spatial senses which are denoted by the prepositions under study. From this analysis, four types of problems have been specified. They are: replacement, avoidance, addition, and omission problems. These types of problems can explain all the errors which may be made by Iraqi/Arab students in using English prepositions of place relation. However, despite the fact that the main cause of these problems is the students' MT, the complexity of the TL prepositional system cannot be ruled out as another important factor which may cause many errors.

Chapter Eight

Error Analysis

8.1. Introduction

The main purpose of this chapter is to highlight the major errors Iraqi students make when dealing with English prepositions of place relation. The data were obtained from a diagnostic test of English prepositions of place relation given to Iraqi students, who are going to be teachers of English at primary and secondary schools, to test their proficiency in using the afore-mentioned prepositions.

The resultant errors are examined, analysed and tabulated with the aim of finding out the sorts of problems Iraqi students face in using English prepositions of place relation as well as the real causes behind such problems.

The test consists of three parts. Part 1 is a passage specifically constructed by the writer to include as many spatial prepositions as possible. It contains sixty-one blanks which the students must fill with specific prepositions. Part 2 is a multiple choice test. It consists of forty-three sentences. It requires the choice of the number of the sentence and the letter of the correct answer. Part 3 of the test consists of the guided translation of forty Arabic prepositions into English. This part is mainly intended to test how far the interference phenomenon affects the students when translating Arabic spatial prepositions into their English counterparts. It is designed as a guided translation test so that errors other than those involving prepositions are avoided.

Since the writer's intention is to concentrate on senses that are not found or are conveyed differently in the Arabic language, the

three parts of the test were constructed to include all these senses. When the reader considers the explanation of errors made by the students, he will see that, sometimes, the same sentence is repeated in the three parts of the test. The reason behind this is the writer's intention of seeing whether the type of question influences the examinees to produce correct or incorrect usages of prepositions. In any case, it should not be considered a matter of repetition since each examinee had only one part to deal with. The three parts of the test also include sentences with blanks which require no prepositions and in this case the students were instructed to use the letter (x).

There was no time limit on the test since the writer wanted the examinees to have as much time as possible to deal with all the prepositions tested in the three parts of the test. However, several sheets were not completed by the testees and thus were discarded. The complete forms of the test can be seen in the appendix.

8.2. The test

8.2.1. The purpose

The purpose of the test undertaken in this study is threefold. Primarily, it is designed to pinpoint the errors Iraqi students commit in using English prepositions of place relation. The secondary purpose is to diagnose which of these prepositions are particularly difficult for Iraqi students to use. The third purpose of the test is to discover the real reasons behind such errors, i.e. whether they are interlingual, caused by NL interference, or intralingual, not reflecting the structures of the MT (see 2.7).

It might be significant to mention that not all senses of prepositions are tested because the writer's main intention is to

concentrate on those senses which either do not exist at all or are denoted differently in Arabic. Such senses are clearly shown in the part of the study dealing with CA. It is perhaps not the preposition as a whole which constitutes a serious difficulty for Iraqi students but rather one of its senses which has no direct equivalent in the students' MT. This is clearly shown in Table 24 dealing with the hierarchy of problematic English prepositions.

It is worthwhile mentioning the other significant fact which emerges from this study. As stated above, the writer's intention is not to deal with senses of prepositions which are denoted similarly in both languages. This follows from the hypothesis stated in chapter one, that similar features in languages are very easy to acquire (see P. 11). But, as the writer was sometimes obliged to use some of these prepositions in part 1 of the test, he discovered that even these prepositions constitute some kind of difficulty. Thus, the findings of this study in this respect refute the findings of CA proponents who claim that similar structures will be easy to learn because they will be easily transferred and may function satisfactorily in the foreign language. Therefore, it could be pointed out that this word class is such a complicated area that students err even when dealing with similar features in the two languages. This leads us to conclude that the degree of control of these words depends on how much a learner has learned rather than on the aspect of similarity and difference. It is hoped that the results obtained from this test will benefit both Arab learners of English, by acquainting them with the difficulties they may have in learning the use of English prepositions of place relation, and teachers of English and curriculum specialists, by acquainting them with those spatial prepositions which are

particularly problematic for Arab learners of English, thereby enabling them to concentrate on them.

8.2.2. Test administration

The test was administered to a sample of more than one thousand students who are training to be teachers of English at primary and secondary schools in Iraq. The examinees were chosen at random from the college of Education, the college of Arts, and the Teachers' Institute in Baghdad.

The procedure followed in administering the test was as follows:

A. Three classes from each stage at the two colleges and the teachers' institute were chosen at random. This means that thirty classes participated in the test; twelve from the college of Education, twelve from the college of Arts, and six from the Teachers' Institute, which has only two stages.

B. Before taking the test, the students were given the impression that the test was mainly intended to help them overcome the difficulties they might face when using English prepositions of place relation. They were also told to take the period of time they needed to answer all the items of the test. The objective behind this was to obtain as much data as possible for EA.

C. The answers of the students were corrected on a right-wrong basis, i.e. a correct item was scored one point and an incorrect one was scored zero. Blank items were counted as incorrect answers. All possible answers were accepted and thus scored correct.

8.2.3. Data sheet

All the students who participated in the test were asked to complete a slip attached to each test sheet. The slip carried the following information:

- a. Age
- b. Sex
- c. Class
- d. College
- e. Have you ever stayed in an English speaking area? If yes, for how long?

The present writer thought that the above information might be of some help in establishing whether or not any of the above factors had any affect on the correct and incorrect use of prepositions. However, after all the sheets had been checked, no significant differences emerged which affected in any way the students' performance. The following Table shows the total number of students who participated in the test, their age, and sex:

	Number of Students	Sex		Ages													
		F	M	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
Teachers' Institute	174	126	48	00	38	63	43	21	09								
College of Arts	375	228	147	09	72	67	97	85	27	08	09	01					
College of Education	395	262	133	06	51	67	94	65	61	23	12	09	03	01	01	01	01
Total	944	616	328	15	161	197	234	171	97	31	21	10	03	01	01	01	01

Table 2

As for the last question, there were only five students, among all the examinees, who answered positively. Only three, who stayed for a long period of time in an English speaking area, passed the test.

8.3. Error analysis and interpretation

After analysing the whole test and counting the number of correct and incorrect items in the three parts, a general picture was obtained. This is given in the figure and four Tables below:

Summary of the students' correct and incorrect answers to the test as a whole

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Number of incorrect responses	percentage
44820	14638	32.65	30182	67.35

Table 3

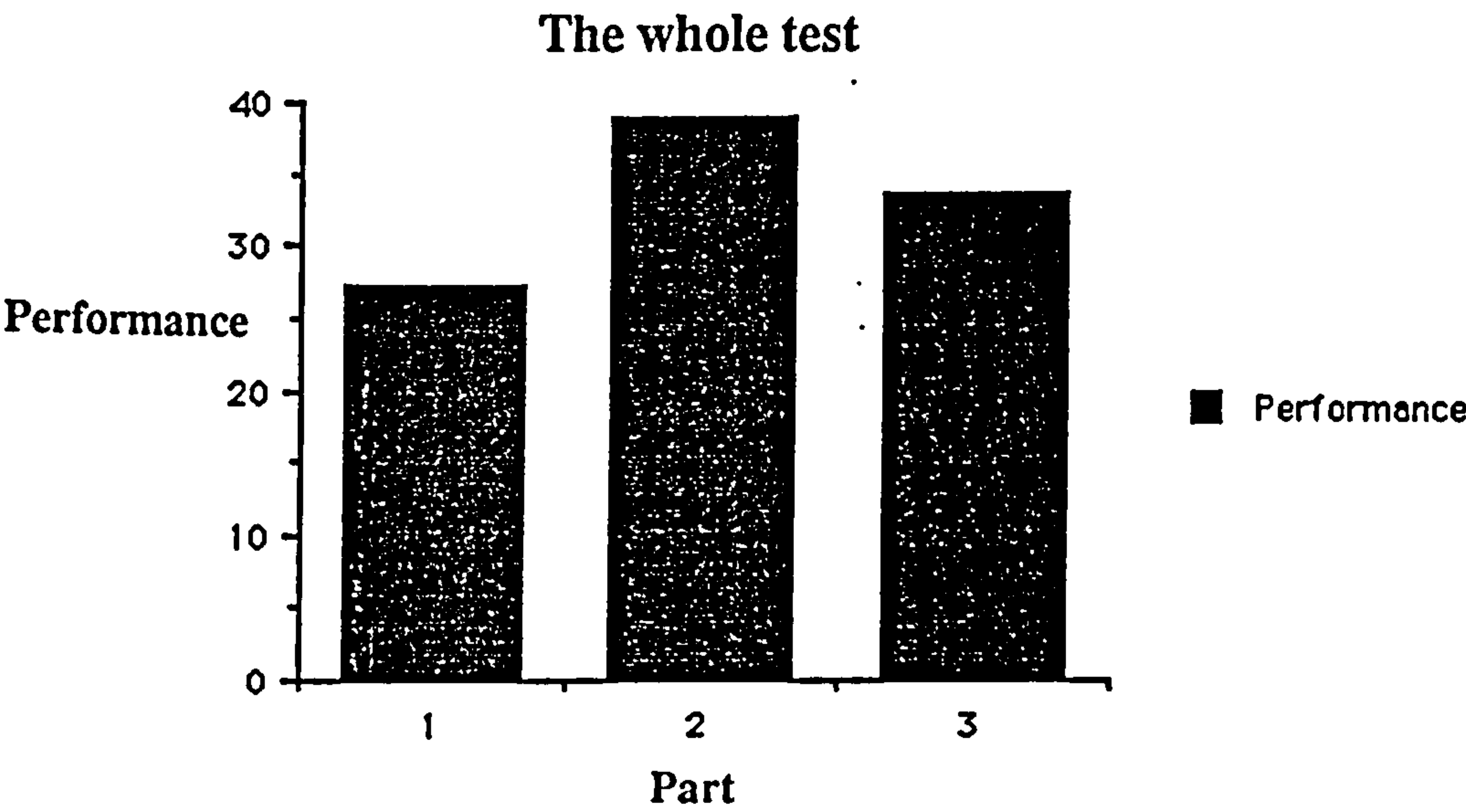


Figure 1

The students' performance in part 1 of the test
(gap-filling)

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Number of incorrect responses	percentage
17690	4805	27.16	12885	72.84

Table 4

The students' performance in part 2 of the test
(multiple-choice)

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Number of incorrect responses	percentage
13330	5196	38.97	8134	61.03

Table 5

The students' performance in part 3 of the test
(translation)

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Number of incorrect responses	percentage
13800	4637	33.60	9163	66.40

Table 6

The highest percentage of errors committed by the students is in part I of the test. This might prove that the passage is above the standard of the students, though the present writer did his best to make it as simple as possible. It is clear from the answers of the examinees that they could not grasp the meaning of some of the constructions. Consequently, prepositions were chosen without thinking even of the MT. From this, one can deduce that most of the testees who are going to be responsible for the development of English language teaching in Iraq are incapable of carrying out this task.

Part 2 of the test was done slightly better than the other two parts since it was a multiple-choice which gave more opportunity for the examinees to choose the proper preposition among the four presented between brackets.

Part 3 of the test was not much less difficult than part I. This shows that NL interference plays an important role in errors in using English prepositions. When dealing with translation, the students primarily think of their NL, which leads them to think of direct equivalents, the result of which is a high percentage of errors. The following is an example:

/kaana yaskunu fii ?altaabaqi ?alxaamisi/

(He was living in the second floor)

He was living on the second floor.

Arab learners of English would use the preposition in instead of on because it is the equivalent of the Arabic preposition /fii/. Thus, the following incorrect sentence would be produced:

* They lived in the second floor.

The following Tables and figures show the students' performance and progress at the College of Arts, College of Education, and the Teachers' Institute respectively

College of Arts

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Number of incorrect responses	percentage
18027	6136	34.03	11891	65.97

Table 7

College of Art

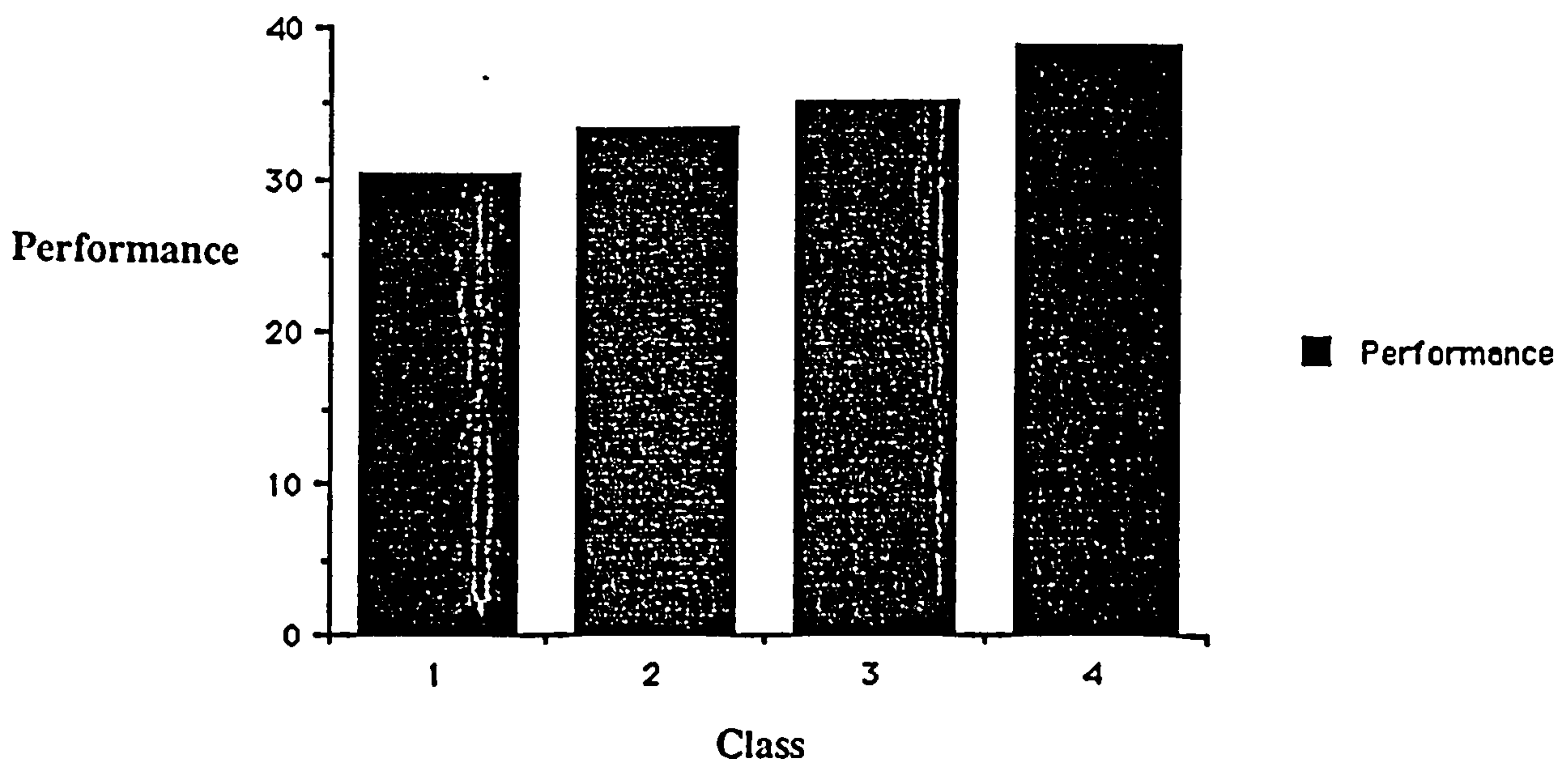


Figure 2

Class 1

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Number of incorrect responses	percentage
5698	1737	30.48	3961	69.52

Table 8

Class 2

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Number of incorrect responses	percentage
4119	1375	33.38	2744	66.62

Table 9

Class 3

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Number of incorrect responses	percentage
4280	1499	35.02	2781	64.98

Table 10

Class 4

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Number of incorrect responses	percentage
3930	1525	38.80	2405	61.20

Table 11

College of Education

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Number of incorrect responses	percentage
18539	5991	32.31	12548	67.69

Table 12

College of Education

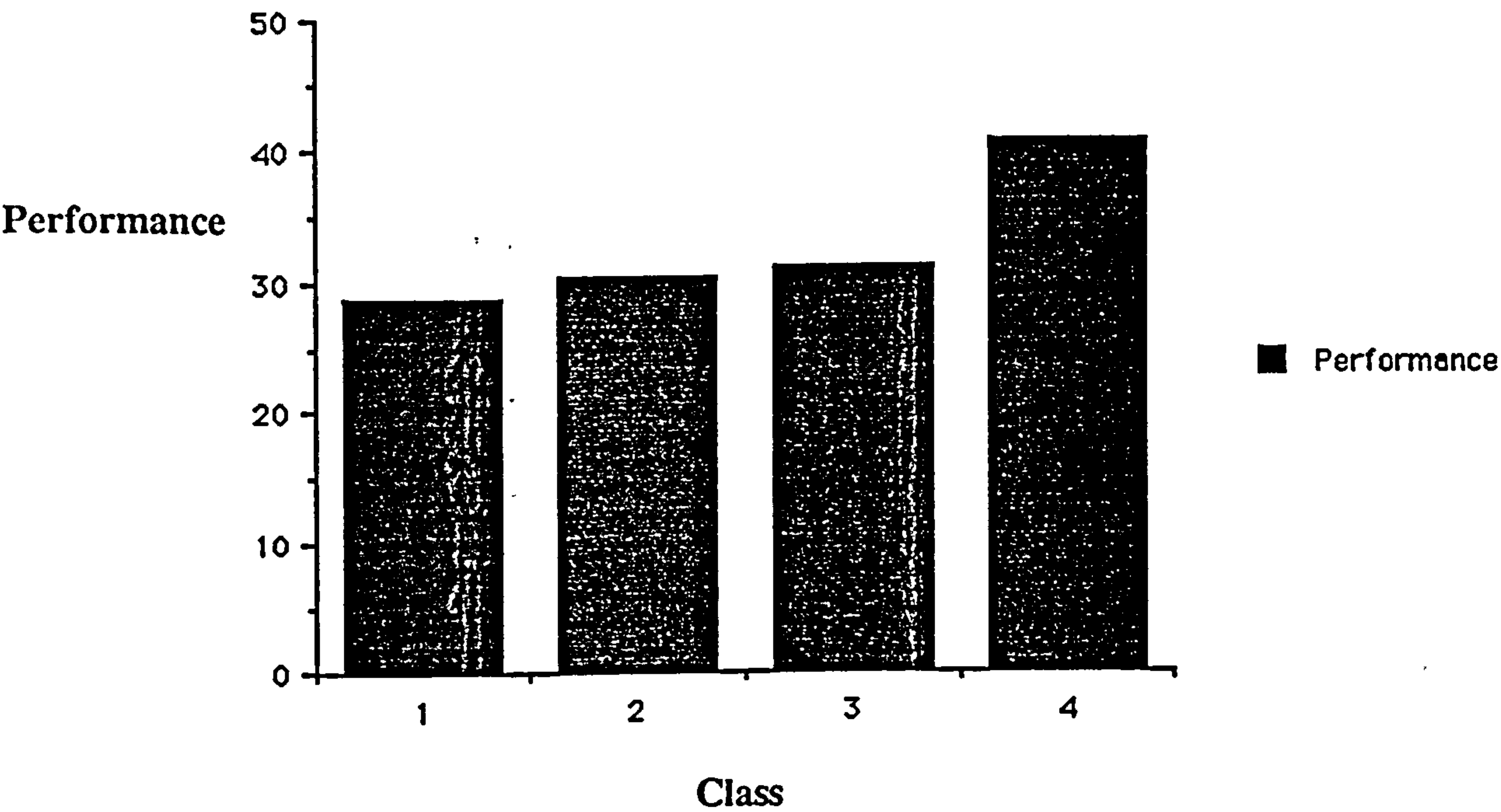


Figure 3

Class 1

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Number of incorrect responses	percentage
4175	1195	28.62	2980	71.38

Table 13 :

Class 2

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Number of incorrect responses	percentage
4420	1345	30.42	3075	69.58

Table 14

Class 3

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Number of incorrect responses	percentage
6234	1941	31.13	4293	68.87

Table 15

Class 4

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Number of incorrect responses	percentage
3710	1510	40.70	2200	59.30

Table 16

Teachers' Institute

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Number of incorrect responses	percentage
8254	2511	30.42	5743	69.58

Table 17

Teachers' Institute

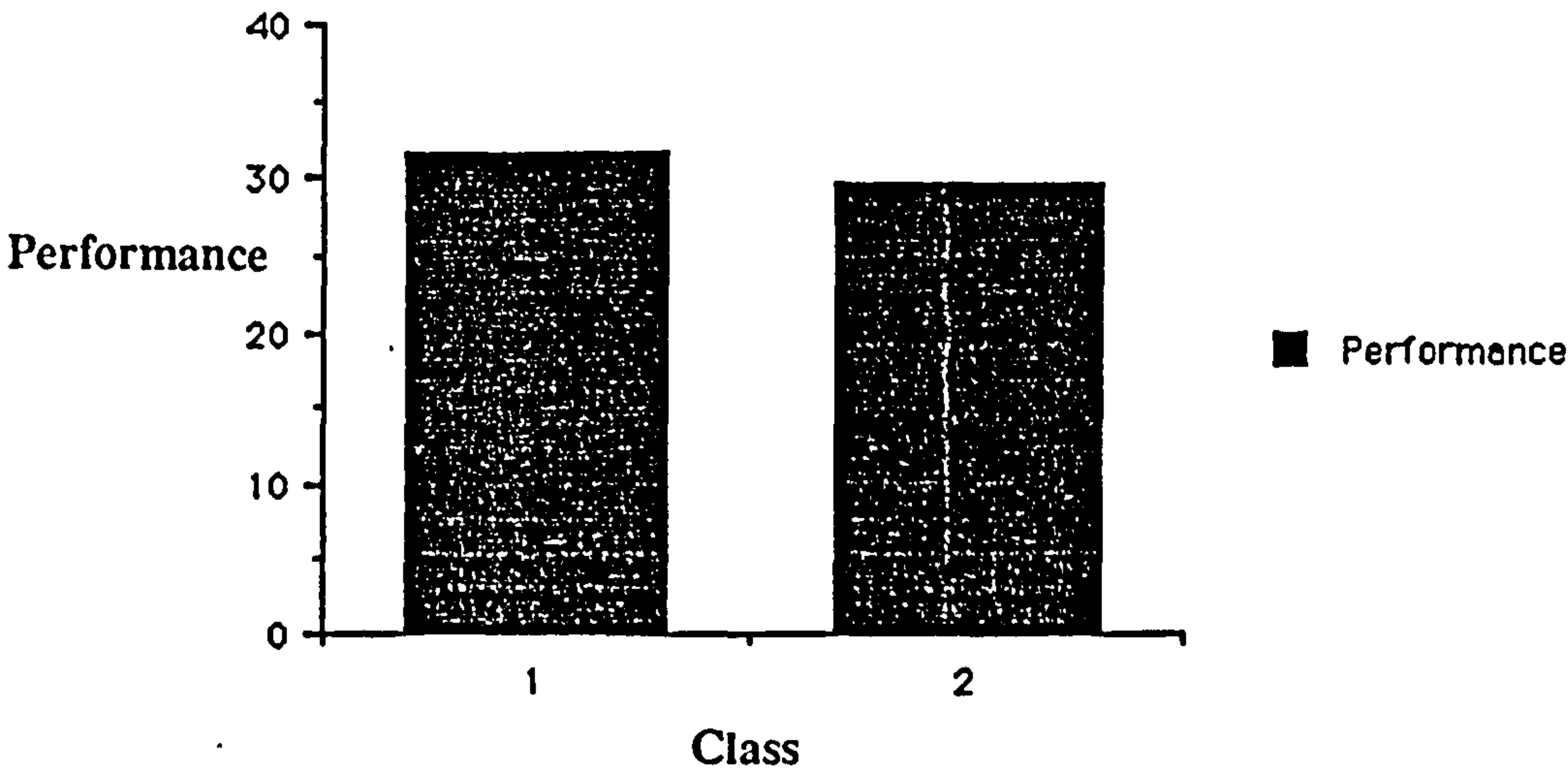


Figure 4

**PAGE
MISSING
IN
ORIGINAL**

College of Arts

First Year		Second Year	
Subject	No. of Hours	Subject	No. of Hours
Applied Grammar	3	Grammar	3
Composition and Library Research	3	Comprehension and Composition	4
Comprehension	3	Conversation	2
Phonetics	3	Phonetic System	2
Introduction to Literature	4	Renaissance Poetry	3
		Renaissance Drama	3
		19th Century Novel	3
Total Hours	16 out of 26	Total Hours	20 out of 24
Third Year		Fourth Year	
General English Grammar	3	General English Grammar	2
Advanced Fiction and Comprehension	3	Introduction to Linguistics	3
General Translation	3	Literary and Technical Translation	2
Poetry (1660-1830)	3	Victorian and Modern Poetry	3
19th Century Novel	3	20th Century Novel	3
Drama in the 17th and 18th Centuries	3	Drama in the 20th Century	3
		Literature Criticism (Theoretical and Applied)	2
		Research Project and Methods of Research	2
Total Hours	18 out of 24	Total Hours	20 out of 24

Table 20

College of Education

First Year		Second Year	
Subject	No. of Hours	Subject	No. of Hours
Applied Grammar	4	Structural Grammar	3
Guided Composition	2	Comprehension and Composition	3
Phonetics	3	English Phonetic System	3
Conversation	2	Conversation	2
Introduction to Poetry and 19th Century Poetry	2	18th Century Poetry	2
Comprehension	3	Short Story	3
Introduction to English Prose	2	A one-Act Play	2
Total Hours	18 out of 26	Total Hours	18 out of 24
Third Year		Fourth Year	
Modern English Prose	3	Transformational Grammar	2
Advanced Conversation	2	General Linguistics	2
Translation	2	Translation	2
Syllabus and Methods of Teaching	2	Methodology and Application	2
19th Century Novel	3	20th Century Novel	3
The Shakespearian Play	3	Modern Drama	3
20th Century Poetry	2	Modern Poetry	2
		History of English Literature	2
Total Hours	17 out of 26	Total Hours	18 out of 24

Table 21

Teachers' Institute

Subject	First Year	Second Year
Testing	2	2
Textbook Analysis	2	2
Methodology	3	3
English Phonetics	3	2
General English	4	5
English Grammar	3	3
English Literature	2	-
Total hours	19 out of 32	17 out of 32

Table 22

Tables 9, 10, 11, 14, 15, 16 and 19 also show how much progress has been achieved by the students at each stage of their study. Although the first two tables and diagrams show that there is some progress between the classes in the two colleges, it cannot be of the magnitude that the educational authorities would like students to achieve, when one considers that it is these students' who are going to be responsible for the development of English language activities in Iraq.

The table which may attract most attention is Table 19. Whereas Tables 9-11 and 14-16 show some very slight progress among students of the two colleges, this table records a negative result. It displays the fact that first class students of the teachers' institute have done better than students in the second class. This leads us to conclude that either it was an accidental result or that students who have come recently from secondary schools have a better knowledge of

English than those who passed the first year at the Teachers' Institute. This fact is not surprising since it is a fact that all the Teachers' Institute students are admitted with low grades achieved in secondary schools. The Teachers' Institute, in most cases, is considered to be the last option for students who are not qualified to be admitted to other colleges and institutes because of their low grades. As a result of this situation, the students attending the Teachers' Institute often have low motivation. This, in turn, may lead to a loss of interest in their studies and a tendency to forget what they have learned previously.

The table below displays the students' correct and incorrect answers for every preposition used in the three parts of the test.

The students' correct and incorrect answers for
every preposition used in the test

Prepositions	Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Number of incorrect responses	Percentage
aboard	1235	227	18.83	1008	81.62
about	945	145	15.34	800	84.66
above	290	59	20.34	231	79.87
across	1875	490	26.13	1385	73.87
against	655	189	28.85	466	71.15
ahead of	945	466	94.31	479	50.69
along	1545	703	45.50	842	54.50
alongside	945	397	42.01	548	57.99
among	1235	621	50.82	614	49.72
around	1255	433	34.50	822	65.59
at	5090	1715	33.69	3375	66.31
before	290	7	2.41	283	97.59
behind	825	454	55.03	371	44.97
below	290	37	12.75	253	87.25
between	600	267	44.05	333	55.05
beyond	345	37	10.72	308	89.28
by	635	278	43.77	357	56.23
down	345	216	62.60	129	37.40
facing	635	290	45.66	345	54.33
for	945	147	15.55	789	84.45

(continued.....)

Prepositions	Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Number of incorrect responses	Percentage
from	290	21	7.24	269	92.76
in	1780	706	39.66	1074	60.34
into	1580	423	26.77	1157	73.23
near	290	157	54.14	133	45.68
next(to)	290	146	50.34	144	49.66
of	1890	565	29.89	1325	70.11
off	1890	163	8.62	1727	91.38
on	2070	478	23.09	1592	76.91
onto	945	244	25.82	701	74.18
opposite	290	87	30	203	70.00
out of	1580	615	38.92	965	61.08
over	2145	471	21.95	1674	78.05
past	290	25	8.62	265	91.38
through	2945	1428	48.48	1517	51.52
throughout	945	162	17.14	387	82.86
to	1450	757	52.20	693	47.80
towards	290	98	33.79	192	66.21
up	635	149	23.46	486	76.54
via	310	60	19.35	250	80.65
(x)	1890	667	35.29	1223	64.71

Table 23

In order to show the hierarchy of problematic English prepositions of place relation for Iraqi learners of English, the following table is presented:

The hierarchy of problematic English prepositions of Place relation

preposition	Percentage of errors		Preposition	Percentage of errors
before	97.59		opposite	70.00
from	92.76		at	66.31
off	91.38		towards	66.21
past	91.38		(a)round	65.59
beyond	89.22		(x)	64.71
below	87.25		out of	61.08
about	84.66		in	60.34
for	84.45		alongside	57.99
throughout	82.86		by	56.23
aboard	81.62		between	55.05
via	80.65		along	54.40
above	79.66		facing	54.33
over	78.05		through	51.52
on	76.91		ahead of	50.69
up	76.54		among	49.65
onto	74.18		next(to)	49.65
across	73.87		to	47.80
into	73.23		near	45.68
against	71.15		behind	44.97
of	70.11		down	37.40

Table 24

8.4. Discussion of errors

Though a precise identification of the causes of errors is a laborious task, the writer has done his best to deal accurately with all possibilities. Errors will be explained primarily on the basis of first language interference (interlingual), though interference within the English language itself and other factors (intralingual) cannot be

ruled out as possible causes of errors.

8.4.1. Interlingual errors

From EA, it is clear that this type of error is the commonest among Arab students. The different prepositional systems in the two languages is the factor that caused most of the errors made by the examinees. It seems that native speakers of Arabic translate literally from Arabic into English unaware that this transfer, though sometimes producing correct prepositions (positive transfer), will certainly cause a considerable number of errors. The hypothesis underlying this type of error maintains that Arab students select improper prepositions when equivalents are either never used or are denoted differently in their MT. These errors will be dealt with as preposition replacement, preposition omission and preposition redundancy. Such types of errors are difficult to separate because, on occasion, they can all be found in the same table of errors.

If we go through the three parts of the test, we can see that the following items are all instances of errors made by the examinees, due to MT interference which induced them to replace prepositions by improper ones, to omit them, or to add unnecessary ones:

Part 1: items 2, 3, 4, 9, 10, 11, 12, 15, 16, 17, 18, 20, 21, 25, 29, 30, 32, 33, 34, 36, 39, 40, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 49, 51, 56, 57, 58, 60, and 61 (see Tables 26, 27, 28, 33, 34, 35, 36, 39, 40, 41, 42, 44, 45, 49, 53, 54, 56, 57, 58, 60, 63, 64, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 73, 75, 80, 81, 82, 84, and 85 respectively).

Part 2: items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 15, 16, 21, 23,

24, 25, 26, 28, 30, 31, 33, 34, 35, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, and 42 (see Tables 86, 87, 88, 89, 90, 91, 92, 93, 94, 95, 96, 98, 100, 101, 106, 108, 109, 110, 111, 113, 115, 116, 118, 119, 120, 122, 123, 124, 125, 126 and 127 respectively).

Part 3: items 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 33, 35, 36, 37, and 38 (see Tables 129, 130, 131, 133, 135, 136, 137, 138, 139, 140, 141, 142, 143, 145, 146, 147, 148, 149, 150, 153, 154, 155, 156, 157, 158, 159, 161, 163, 164, 165 and 166 respectively).

Comments on how the students' MT interfered by causing some of the afore-mentioned errors will be introduced in relation to each tested preposition.

8.4.1.1. Correct preposition of

Part I, items 2 and 20; Part 2, items 7 and 37 and Part 3, items 26 and 27 require the use of the preposition of:

P1) 2. The island was about fifty miles south of Glasgow.

20. We were within two miles of our station.

P2) 7. We had an accident within a mile of the station.

37. Basrah is about 300 miles south of Baghdad.

P3) 26. Babylon is 80 miles south of Baghdad.

27. The accident took place within two miles of the station.

The commonest error made by Arab students when dealing with items 2 (P1), 37 (P2), and 26 (P3) is either the use of the preposition from or the null form (x). In Arabic, this sense is denoted in either of the following ways:

/taqa9 baabil januuba bagdaad/

(situated Babylon south Baghdad)

Babylon is south of Baghdad.

or

/taqa9 baabil ?ilaa ?aljanuubi min bagdaad/

(situated Babylon to the south from Baghdad)

Babylon is south of Baghdad.

Thus, the students who thought of the first choice, used no preposition and the resulting error was one of omission. Those who took the second choice, used the preposition from, the literal translation of the Arabic preposition /min/, which is used to denote this sense. This is clearly shown in Tables 26, 122 and 154. In Table 26, 45 students used the preposition from and 27 used the null form. In Table 122, 127 students used the preposition from and 62 used the null form. In Table 154, 55 students used the preposition from and 46 used the null form.

The distinctive error in items 20 (P1), 7 (P2) and 27 (P3) is the use of the preposition from. (see Tables 92, 92 and 155). The cause of this error is MT interference. In Arabic, there are two possible means of denoting this sense. The first is the use of /9an/ (of) which denotes the correct usage. This will be dealt with later, i.e. in the part dealing with partial learning errors (see 8.4.2.1.). The second is the use of from, e.g.

/waqa9a ?alhaadi9u bihuduudi miilayni min ?almahattati/

(took place the accident within two miles from the station)

8.4.1.2. Correct preposition at

Part 1, items 3, 9, 11 and 17; Part 2, items 10, 23, 24, 31, 38 and 40 and Part 3, items 8, 11, 15, 19, 21 and 38 require the use of

the preposition at:

P1) 3. We bought our tickets at Glasgow Central Station.

9. When the train arrived at the platform, all the people got aboard it.

11. My family all sat at the same table.

17. The train stopped at many stations.

P2) 10. Old people prefer to stay at home.

23. We got our lunch at the restaurant.

24. The glass was broken because of a glass thrown at it.

31. She lives at 73 Park Avenue.

38. He always arrives early at his office.

40. He prefers to sit at his table.

P3) 8. The manager likes to sit at his table.

11. Suha was studying at Mosul University.

15. The girl threw a stone at the glass.

19. My father prefers to stay at home.

21. Suha often arrives at her office early.

38. The students got their lunch at the university refectory.

In item 3 (P1), only four of the two hundred and ninety examinees used the correct preposition at. Most of the students used the preposition from, the counterpart of the Arabic preposition /min/ which is used to denote this sense. Table 27 shows that 215 students used the preposition from instead of at.

In items 9 (P1), 38 (P2) and 21 (P3), the most frequent error made by the students is either the use of the preposition to or the null form. In Arabic, the verb /yaṣīlu/ (arrive) is either used alone, i.e. without a preposition, or requires to be followed by the preposition /ʔilaa/ (to), e.g.

/waḡala ?alwaɪadu madrasatahu muta?axxiran/

(arrived the boy his school late)

The boy arrived at his school late.

/waḡala ?alwaɪadu ?ilaa madrasatihi muta?axxiran/

(arrived the boy to his school late)

The boy arrived at his school late.

The students who made the first choice used no preposition, which is an error of omission. Those who thought of the second possibility used the preposition to, the equivalent of the Arabic preposition /?ilaa/, instead of at (see Tables 33, 123 and 149).

In items 11 (P1), 40 (P2) and 8 (P3), the highest number of errors made by the testees is in the use of the preposition on (see Tables 35, 125 and 136). The cause of this error is due either to the verb "sat", the literal translation of the Arabic verb /jalasa/ which often requires the use of the preposition /9alaa/(on), or to the students' colloquial language, where the use of /9alaa/ to denote this sense is very common. The other possibility for denoting this sense in Arabic is the use of the preposition /9inda/ which denotes the correct answer. This is a partial learning problem.

In item 17 (P1), the most frequent error is the use of the preposition in instead of at (see Table 41). The cause of this error is that the verb /yaqifu/(stop) is always followed by the preposition /fii/(in) in relation to vehicles and stations, e.g.

/waqafa ?alqiṭaaruu fii ?almahattati/

(stopped the train in the station)

The train stopped at the station.

In items 10 (P2) and 19 (P3), many students used the preposition in instead of at (see Tables 95 and 147). In Arabic, the verb

/yabqaa/(stay) always demands the use of the preposition /fii/(in) to denote this sense, e.g.

/yafajilu ?abii ?albaqaa?a fii ?albayti daa?iman/

(prefer my father staying in the home always)

My father always prefers to stay at home.

The error that the students committed in items 23 (P2), 11 and 38 (P3), is the use of the preposition in instead of at (see Tables 108, 139, and 166). The cause of this error is that, in Arabic, the preposition /fii/({in}), but never /9inda/(at), is used to denote this sense, e.g.

/tanaawalnaa wajbat ?algadaa?i fii ?almat9ami/

(we got the lunch in the restaurant)

We got our lunch at the restaurant.

In items 24 (P2) and 15 (P3), many examinees used either the preposition on or to instead of the correct preposition at (see Tables 109 and 143). The cause of this error is that, in Arabic, the verb /yarmi/(throw) requires the use of the preposition /9alaa/(on) to indicate a similar sense, e.g.

/ramat ?albintu ?alkurata 9alaa ?aljidaari/

(threw the girl the ball on the wall)

The girl threw the ball at the wall.

In item 31 (P2), the students used either the preposition in or the null form instead of the correct preposition at. Table 116 shows that 95 students used the preposition in and 74 used the null form. The cause of this error is that, in Arabic, the verb /yaskunu/(live) is either used without a preposition or is followed by the preposition /fii/(in), e.g.

/sakanat salwaa fii bagdaada muddatan tawiilatan/

(lived Salwa in Baghdad time a long)

Salwa lived in Baghdad for a long time.

/sakanat salwaa bagdaada muddatan tawiilatan/

(lived Salwa Baghdad time long)

Salwa lived in Baghdad for a long time.

Therefore, the students who thought of the first choice used the incorrect preposition in and those who thought of the second one, used the null form which results in an error of omission.

8.4.1.3. Correct preposition for

Part I, item 4; part 2, item 21 and Part 3, item 17, require the use of the preposition for:

PI) 4. The train would leave for Wemsbay at 10 a.m.

P2) 21. I am going to leave for my country next month.

P3) 17. We are leaving for Basrah tomorrow.

The most frequent error made by the students in the above three examples is the use of the preposition to instead of for (see Tables 28, 106, and 145). The reason for this error is that in the students' MT, the verb /yugaadiru/ (leave) is followed either by the preposition /?ilaa/ (to) or /li/ (for). Thus, the examinees who thought of the first option used the incorrect preposition to and those who thought of the second one used the correct preposition for. The second option will be dealt with later as a partial learning problem.

8.4.1.4. Correct preposition aboard

Part 1, items 10 and 25; Part 2, item 4 and Part 3, item 1, require the use of the preposition aboard:

PI) 10. When the train arrived, all the people got aboard it.

25. As soon as we had stepped aboard the ferry, it began to move.

P2) 4. They have just gone aboard the ship.

P3) 1. All the people went aboard the ship.

The most frequent error committed by the examinees is either the use of the preposition on or to or the null form. The cause of these errors is that, to denote this sense in Arabic, the following are possible:

/sa9ada ?alnaasu 9alaa jahri ?alsafiinati/

(ascended the people on board the ship)

/sa9ada ?alnaasu 9alaa ?alsafiinati/,

(ascended the people on the ship)

/sa9ada ?alnaasu ?ilaa ?alsafiinati/,

(ascended the people to the ship)

or

/sa9ada ?alnaasu ?alsafiinata/

(ascended the people the ship)

which all mean

The people got aboard the ship

The students who thought of the first choice, used either "on board" or the correct preposition aboard. But, on the other hand, the students who thought of the other options, used the incorrect prepositions on, to and the null form respectively (see Tables 34, 89, and 129). The use of the preposition onto was accepted as another correct answer.

8.4.1.5. Correct preposition next(to)

The correct preposition in item 12 (P1) is next to

21. My wife sat next to me.

Though Table 36 does not show a high percentage of errors, only a few students used the preposition next to, since it has no equivalent in Arabic. Most of the examinees used the preposition beside, the counterpart of the Arabic preposition /bijaanibi/, which is used to denote this sense, even though it is not mentioned in the question. The same table shows that the most frequent error made by the students is the use of the preposition behind.

8.4.1.6. Correct preposition between or among

The correct preposition in item 15 (P1) and item 13 (P2) is between and in items 29 and 44 (P1), 3, (P2) and 7 (Part 3), is among:

P1) 15. My young daughter sat between her mother and me.

P2) 13. Iraq lies between Syria, Jordan, and Turkey.

P1) 29. One of the crew was standing among the people telling them something about the journey.

44. We walked past many nice buildings among which was the hotel where we were going to spend the afternoon.

P2) 3. They live in that village among the hills.

P3) 7. My friend built a house among the hills.

The most frequent error made by the examinees is the use of either between instead of among or vice versa (see Tables 29, 53, 68, 88, 98 and 135). The main cause of this error is twofold. First, in Arabic, there is only one preposition, /bayna/, which is used to denote all the senses denoted by both English prepositions. The second reason is

the overlapping in English between the two prepositions in relation to more than two persons or things. This will be dealt with later.

8.4.1.7. Correct preposition through

Part 1, item 16; Part 2, items 25 and 41 and Part 3, items 20, 22 and 31 require the use of the preposition through:

P1) 16. The train went through many charming villages.

P2) 25. The missile went through the air.

41. The train passes through Crew and Carlisle.

P3) 20. The sun appeared through the clouds.

22. We went through many towns on our way to the capital.

31. The rain poured through the ceiling.

The most frequent error made by the students in items 16 (P1), 25 and 41 (P2) and 22 (P3), is the use of the preposition in (see Tables 40, 110, 126, and 150). In Arabic, to denote the sense denoted by the preposition through in items 16, 41, and 22 above, the construction /marra bi/ (pass by) is used, e.g.

/marra ?alqitaaru bimudunin kaøiiratin/

(passed the train in towns many)

The train went through many towns.

The sense in item 25 can be conveyed in Arabic by the preposition /fii/ (in). The Arabic literal translation of this sentence is

/?intalaqa ?alsaaruuxu fii ?alhawaa?i/

(went the missile in the air)

Besides, as Tables 40 and 150 show, many students used either the preposition to or inside instead of through, because, in Arabic, the verb /yathabu/ (go) is frequently followed by either the preposition

/ʔilaa/ (to) or /daaxila/ (inside).

For item 41 (P2) (see Table 126), seventy two students used the preposition within, thinking that, as in Arabic, through and within have the same meaning.

In items 20 and 31 (P3), the most frequent error made by the testees is the use of the incorrect compound preposition "from through", the counterpart of the Arabic compound preposition /min xilaali/ which is used to denote this sense. Consider the following examples:

/ʔaharat ʔalʔamsu min xilaali ʔalguyuumi/

(appeared the sun from through the clouds)

The sun appeared through the clouds.

/nazala ʔalmaʔaru min xilaali ʔalsaqfi/

(poured the rain from through the ceiling)

The rain poured through the ceiling.

This error, mentioned in Tables 148 and 159 as "other items", is an error of redundancy where the students added the unnecessary preposition from.

Many students also used the preposition from in the above example because, in Arabic, it is quite common to say,

/nazala ʔalmaʔaru min ʔalsaqfi/

(poured the rain from the ceiling)

The rain poured through the ceiling.

8.4.1.8. Correct preposition out of

Part 1, items 18 and 46; Part 2, item 6 and Part 3, item 29 require the use of the preposition out of

PI) 18. The people could lean out of the windows to have a good

look at the sights there.

46. As we went out of the building, we saw some of the children happily playing football on the grass.

P2) 6. Take your hand out of your pocket.

P3) 29. You are not allowed to take this book out of the library.

The main reason underlying the high number of errors made by the testees (see Tables 42, 70, 91, and 157) is the non-existence of an Arabic equivalent of the English preposition out of. In Arabic there are two alternative ways of conveying the senses denoted by the preposition out of, either the preposition /xaarija/ (outside) or the compound preposition /li/?ilaa xaariji/ (to outside). Though sometimes the two prepositions out of and outside are interchangeable, they are not so all the time, as in items 18 (P1) and 6 (P2). Thus, the students who thought of the first choice, used the preposition outside and those who thought of the second one used the incorrect compound preposition to outside which results in an error of redundancy. The preposition to was unnecessarily added. The use of the two incorrect prepositions to and inside after the verb "went" was repeated by the examinees in item 46 (P1) (see Table 70).

The preposition that was used by the students in item 6 (P2) and 29 (P3) is from, instead of out of (see Tables 91 and 157). The cause of this error is twofold. The first one is that, in Arabic, the preposition /min/(from) is used to denote these senses. The second reason is the overlapping of the two prepositions. This will be dealt with later, in the part dealing with overlapping problems.

8.4.1.9. Correct preposition about/around:

Part 1, item 21; Part 2, item 33 and Part 3, item 10, require the

use of either about or around

PI) 21. We left the train and began wandering around/about the town.

P2) 33. She has a gold chain about/around her neck.

P3) 10. We walked about/around the country looking for the missing child.

In items 21 (P1) and 10 (P3), most frequent error made by the students is in the use of the preposition in (see Tables 45 and 138), the counterpart of the Arabic preposition /fii/ which is used to convey these senses.

The sense in item 33 (P2) can be denoted in Arabic by three prepositions, i.e. /hawla/ (around), /fii/ (in), and /9alaa/ (on). Consider the following:

/kaanat zaynab tada9u qilaadatan tahabiyyatan hawla/fii/9alaa 9uniqihaa/

(was Zaynab wearing a necklace gold around/in/on her neck)

Zaynab was wearing a gold necklace around her neck.

As Table 118 shows that only 59 students out of 310 used the correct preposition around, 80 used the preposition in and 121 used on.

8.4.1.10. Correct preposition across

Part 1, item 30; Part 2, items 2, 16 and 34 and Part 3, item 2 require the use of the preposition across:

P1) 30. It would take us two hours to go across the sea to the island.

P2) 2. They decided to build another bridge across the Tigris.

16. It took us half an hour to swim across the river to the

other side.

34. He walked across the room smiling strangely.

P3) 2. Another bridge was built across the river.

In items 30 (P1) and 2 (P2), the Arabic preposition /9abra/ (across) is not used to denote the same sense. The most frequent error committed by the students in the first item is the use of the preposition to, the counterpart of the Arabic preposition /?ilaa/ which often follows the verb /yathabu/ (go) (see Table 54). For item 16 (P2), many students used the preposition in, the counterpart of the Arabic preposition /fii/, which frequently follows the verb /yasbaḥu/ (swim) (see Table 101). In Arabic, to denote the sense denoted by the preposition across in these examples, the noun /9ubuur/ (crossing) is used, e.g.

/?istagraqa 9ubuuru ?alnahri ?akøara min saa9atin/

(took crossing the river more from an hour/

It took more than one hour to swim across the river.

The most frequent error made by the students in items 2 (P2) and 2 (P3), is the use of the preposition over (see Tables 87 and 130), the literal translation of the Arabic preposition /fawqa/, which is used in Arabic to denote the same sense. In Arabic, the preposition /9abra/ (across) is not used to denote this sense. In item 34 (P2), the highest number of errors is caused by the use of the preposition in (see Table 119), the English equivalent of the Arabic preposition /fii/, which is used to indicate this sense. The preposition /9abra/ (across) is never used in Arabic to convey this sense.

8.4.1.11. Correct preposition on:

Part 1, items 40 and 49 and Part 2, items 9 and 26 require the use

of the preposition on

P1) 40. The first place to visit on the island was the museum.

49. The room which was booked for us was on the second floor.

P2) 9. We saw many farmers working on their farms.

26. He lives on the first floor.

As Tables 64, 703, 94 and 111 show, the incorrect use of the preposition in instead of on is prominent. In Arabic, to denote these senses, the preposition /fii/ (in) is used. Consider the following literal translation of the four sentences above:

/?inna ?awwala makaanin zurnaahu fii ?aljaziirati huwa ?almathafu/

(that the first place we visited in the island the museum)

/kaanat ?algurfatu ?allati ujjirat lanaa fii ?altaabaqi

?alraabi9i/

(was the room which was rented for us in the floor the fourth)

/Baahadnaa fallaahiina kathiiriina ya9maluuna fii huquulihim/

(we saw farmers many were working in their fields)

/kaana yaskunu fii ?altaabaqi ?aløaani/

(was living in the floor the second)

The last sense can also be denoted in Arabic by the verb /yaskunu/ (live) alone, i.e. without being followed by the preposition /fii/ (in):

/kaana yaskunu ?altaabaqa ?alraabi9a/

(was living the floor the fourth)

The examinees who thought of this choice used the null form which results in an error of omission. This is clearly shown in Table 111 where many examinees used (x).

8.4.1.12. Correct preposition onto:

Part 1, item 24; Part 2, item 1 and Part 3, item 18 require the use of the preposition onto

P1) 24. One of the crew asked the people to go up the steps onto the ferry.

P2) 1. The cat jumped onto the mantelpiece.

P3) 18. The monkey climbed onto the tree.

The highest number of errors committed by the examinees in the above examples is in the use of the preposition on instead of onto. The cause of this error is twofold. The first reason is the non-existence of an Arabic equivalent of the preposition onto. To denote this sense in Arabic, either the preposition /9alaa/ (on) or the compound preposition /?ilaa ?a9laa/ (to up) is used. The testees who thought of the first choice used the preposition on and those who thought of the second choice used the incorrect compound preposition to up which results in an error of redundancy. This is shown in Tables 48, 86, and 146. The second reason behind the use of the preposition on instead of onto is the overlapping between the two prepositions in English (see P. 145). For item 18 (P3), 46 students successfully avoided the use of any preposition and therefore translated the sentence

/tasallaqa ?alqirdu ?ilaa ?a9laa ?aljarati/

(climbed the monkey to up the tree)

into

The monkey climbed the tree.

8.4.1.13. Correct preposition over:

In item 32 (P1), the correct preposition is over

Most of the people were leaning over the ferry rails.

The highest number of errors made by the students in the above example is in the use of the preposition on (see Table 56). The cause of this error is the verb "lean", the counterpart of the Arabic verb /yattaki?u/, which always requires the use of the preposition /9alaa/ (min).

8.4.1.14. Correct preposition into

Part 1, items 33 and 58; Part 2, item 11 and Part 3, item 25 require the use of the preposition into:

P1) 33. Birds were diving into the sea looking for their food.

58. They enjoyed themselves by jumping into the sea.

P2) 11. She dived into the swimming pool.

P3) 25. The plane crashed into the trees.

The highest number of errors made by the students in the above examples is in the use of the preposition in instead of into (see Tables 57, 82, 96 and 153). There are two factors behind this error. The first one is due to MT interference. In Arabic, since there is no counterpart to the English preposition into, all the above senses are denoted by the preposition /fii/ (in). The second factor is the overlapping between these two prepositions in English (see P. 143). This will be dealt with later. In items 11 (P2) and 25 (P3), many students committed partial learning errors (see 8.4.2.1.). Still in item 25 (P2), many examinees committed an error of omission. They tried to avoid using the preposition required in the sentence and translated the following Arabic sentence:

/?istadat ?altayaaratu bil?a/jaari/

(crashed the plane in the trees)

The plane crashed into the trees.

into

/sadamat ?altayyaratu ?al?a]jaara/

(crashed the plane the trees)

*The plane crashed the trees.

8.4.1.15. Correct preposition ahead of

In items 34 (P1), 5 (P2) and 5 (P3), the correct preposition is ahead of

P1) 34. One of the birds was flying about a mile ahead of the ferry.

P2) 5. Tom was a good runner, so he soon got ahead of the others.

P3) 5. The officer was running ahead of the soldiers.

The highest number of errors made by the testees, in the above examples, is the use of the preposition before, the literal translation of the Arabic preposition /qabla/ which is used colloquially to denote a spatial sense (see Tables 90 and 133). Though these tables do not show high percentages of errors, the preposition ahead of was rarely used by the examinees since it has no counterpart in Arabic. Most of the students used the preposition in front of, the English counterpart of the Arabic preposition /?amaama/, which was accepted as another correct possibility.

8.4.1.16. Correct preposition throughout:

In items 36 (P1) and 33 (P3), the proper preposition is throughout

P1) 36. A search was made throughout the ferry.

P2) 33. The description of the criminal was circulated throughout the town.

As Tables 60 and 161 show, the commonest error committed by the students in the above examples is the use of either the preposition on or in. In Arabic, to indicate the senses denoted by the preposition throughout, which has no Arabic counterpart, either the construction /9alaa kaaffati ?anḥaa?i/ (on all parts) or /fii kaaffati ?anḥaa?i/ (in all parts) is used.

8.4.1.17. Correct preposition off

Part 1, items 39; Part 2, item 35 and Part 3, items 28 and 37 require the use of the preposition off:

P1) 29. We saw a lighthouse just off the coast.

P2) 35. We are now off home.

P3) 28. The books fell off the shelf.

37. The ship stopped off the coast.

The main reason underlying the highest number of errors made by the examinees in the above examples is the nonexistence of an Arabic counterpart to the English preposition off. In items 39 (P1) and 37 (P3), many students used either the construction "far of" or "far from", the literal translation of the Arabic constructions /ba9iidan 9an/ and /ba9iidan min/, which are used to denote this sense. These two errors, since they are not prepositions of place relation, are placed under "other items" (see Table 165).

The two types of errors made by the testees in item 35 (P2) (see Table 120), are the use of either the preposition in or the null form. The cause of the first error is twofold. First, it is due to MT interference because in Arabic, the use of the preposition /fii/ (in) before the word "home" is obligatory, e.g.

/hum ?al?aana fii baytihim/

(they now in home)

They are at home now.

The other reason for this error and the use of the null form in the same example belongs to partial learning.

The two types of errors committed by the students in item 28 (P3) (see Table 156), are the use of the preposition from and the incorrect compound preposition from on. These are literal translations of the two prepositions /min/ and /min 9alaa/, which are used in Arabic to convey the same sense. For instance, the literal translation of the third example is

/saqat ?alkutubu min/min 9alaa ?alraffi/

(fell the books from/from on the shelf)

The cause of this error is also twofold. The interference phenomenon influenced the students to commit an error of redundancy, in that they unnecessarily added the preposition on to form a nonexistent compound preposition. The second reason belongs to partial learning.

8.4.1.18. Correct preposition past:

In item 43 (P1), the correct preposition is past

We walked past many nice buildings.

As Table 67 shows, there is no prominent error made by the students in the above example because in Arabic, this sense cannot be denoted by a preposition. To indicate this sense, the verb /?ijtaaza/tajaawaza/ (walked past) is used.

8.4.1.19. No preposition needed

In Part 1, items 45 and 61; Part 2, items 8 and 42 and Part 3,

items 14 and 36, no preposition is needed and therefore the students had to use the null form(x):

P1) 45. As we entered the museum, we became fascinated by its marvelous treasures.

61. The idea of going back home was unappealing.

P2) 8. They entered a police station.

42. They went home two hours ago.

P3) 14. The boy went home late.

36. All the people entered the building.

The most frequent error made by the students in the above examples is the addition of unnecessary prepositions either before the word "home" or after the verb "enter" (see Tables 69, 85, 93, 127, 142, and 164). These errors are caused by the interference phenomenon as well as partial learning. In items 61 (P1), 42 (P2) and 14 (P3), it is obligatory in Arabic to use the preposition /?ilaa/li/ (to) before the word /bayt/ (home). For instance, the literal translation of 14 (P3) is

/tahaba ?alwaladu li/?ilaa baytihi muta?axxiran/

(went the boy to home late)

For the other items, the use of a preposition after the verb /yadxulu/ (enter) is optional. For example, the translation of the last sentence can be either

/daxala ?alna:su ?albinaayata jamii9an/

(entered the people the building all)

or

/daxala ?alnaasu ?ilaa/fii ?albinaayati/

(entered the people to/in the building)

The use of the preposition at before the word home is a partial

learning error.

8.4.1.20. Correct preposition before:

In item 51 (P1), the correct preposition is before
Lunch was set before us.

The cause behind the high percentage of errors in the above example (see Table 75) is the fact that the Arabic preposition /qabla/, the literal translation of the English preposition before, is never used in Arabic to convey this sense. The use of either the preposition for or to is caused by partial learning.

8.4.1.21. Correct preposition by:

In items 56 (P1) and 35 (P3), the correct preposition is by
P1) 56. We went to the beach to pass some time by the sea.
P3) 35. Ships come to Iraq by the Arab Gulf.

The cause of all the errors made by the examinees when dealing with the above items (see Tables 80 and 163) is the non-existence of a direct Arabic equivalent of the preposition by. The most frequent error made by the students when dealing with item 56 (P1) is the use of the preposition on. The cause of this error is the colloquial Arabic which allows the use of the preposition /9alaa/ (on) to convey this sense. The most frequent error made by the testees in item 35 (P3) is the use of the preposition from. The cause of this error is the use of the verb "come", which often requires the use of this preposition.

8.4.1.22. Correct preposition along

In item 57 (P1), the correct preposition is along:

The children enjoyed themselves by pulling each other along the warm sand.

Most of the errors shown in Table 81 are due to the fact that the prepositions /tuula/, /tiwaala/ and /9alaa tuuli/, the Arabic equivalents of the English preposition along, cannot be used to denote this sense. Some students used the preposition on, the other possibility that could be used to indicate this sense. The prominent error made by the students is the use of the preposition by. This is due to partial learning.

8.4.1.23. Correct preposition over

In Part 1, item 60; Part 2, item 30 and Part 3, item 30 the examples that require the use of the preposition over, are introduced:

The sun disappeared over the horizon.

The highest number of errors made by the students in the above example, is the use of the preposition in (see Tables 84, 115 and 158), the counterpart of the Arabic preposition /fii/, which is used to denote this sense. Consider the following literal translation of the sentence above:

/gaabat ?al?amsu fii ?alufuqi/

(disappeared the sun in the horizon)

8.4.1.24. Correct preposition against

In item 15 (٢١), the correct preposition is against:

His bicycle was leaning against the tree.

The most frequent error made by the testees is the use of the preposition on (see Table 100), the literal translation of the Arabic preposition /9alaa/ which is used to denote this sense. The word

/9aksa/, the literal translation of the preposition against, is never used in Arabic to denote this sense.

8.4.1.25. Correct preposition around

Part 2, item 28 and Part 3, item 9 require the use of the preposition around:

P2) 28. A large hospital was built around that corner.

P3) 9. The post office is around that corner.

As Tables 113 and 137 show, the most frequent error made by the students is the use of either the preposition in or on, the literal translation of the Arabic prepositions /fii/ and /9alaa/, which are used to convey this sense in Arabic.

8.4.1.26. Correct preposition via

In item 39 (P2), the correct preposition is via:

Go quickly via the stairs when you discover a fire.

The cause of all the errors made by the examinees when dealing with the above item (see Table 124) is the non-existence of a direct Arabic equivalent to the preposition via.

8.4.1.27. Correct preposition beyond

In item 12 (P3), the correct preposition is beyond:

Don't go beyond that place.

As Table 140 shows, the most frequent error made by the students is the use of either the construction "far of" or "far from", presented in the table as "other items". The cause of this error is that, in Arabic, to denote this sense, either the compound preposition /ba9iidan 9an/ (far of) or /?ab9adu min/ (far from) is used.

The discussion of the possible causes of interlingual errors made by the examinees shows that, out of the 117 instances, 84 (71.7%) are of replacement; 17 (41.5%) are of addition and 16 (13.8%) are of omission. It is also shown that 30.5% of errors are caused by the non-existence of direct equivalents in Arabic and 69.5% are caused because senses are denoted differently in the two languages. It is worth mentioning that 30% of the errors made by the testees are caused by collocations of verbs and prepositions in Arabic.

8.4.2. Intralingual errors

This type of error encompasses all errors made by the students, apart from those caused by MT interference. However, because the exam was a written one, it is not possible to reveal all intralingual errors, especially those committed by the speakers in the spoken language, because in writing, people have more time to think of their choices than in speaking. Therefore, the writer concentrates on three types of errors: partial learning, overlapping and graphic similarity.

8.4.2.1. Partial learning

It is supposed that students will produce correct usages when dealing with items where direct translation from Arabic into English produces correct prepositions. Contrastivists call this phenomenon "positive transfer" and it helps the learners to produce the correct usages of the TL (see P. 11). Nevertheless, errors occur. On account of this the writer wanted to test the validity of this claim. Such errors reveal that the participants in the test have not yet acquired

the correct usages of English. This led them to choose prepositions at random, due to the fact that there are no consistent factors influencing them in choosing certain incorrect prepositions. This is obvious from the tables of errors which deal with items where there are no prominent erroneous usages of certain prepositions.

The following items are all instances of errors caused by partial learning:

Part 1: items 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11, 13, 14, 20, 22, 23, 25, 26, 31, 33, 35, 37, 38, 41, 42, 47, 48, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56, 59, and 61 (see Tables 25, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 34, 35, 37, 38, 44, 46, 47, 49, 50, 55, 57, 59, 61, 62, 65, 66, 71, 72, 74, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 83, and 85).

Part 2: 4, 7, 16, 18, 21, 22, 26, 27, 39, and 42 (see Tables 89, 92, 101, 103, 106, 107, 111, 112, 124, and 127).

Part 3: 1, 4, 6, 14, 16, 25, 27, 28, 35, and 39 (see Tables 129, 132, 134, 142, 144, 153, 155, 156, 163 and 167).

8.4.2.1.1. Correct preposition to

In items 1, 31, 48, and 55 in Part 1, the correct preposition is to:

1. We made up our minds to go on a picnic to an island called Wemsbay.

31. It would take us two hours to go across the sea to the island.

48. We went to our hotel.

55. Then we went to the beach.

All the errors shown in Tables 25, 55, 72 and 79 are unjustifiable because the literal translation of the above four sentences into Arabic would produce the correct preposition, due to the fact that the Arabic preposition /?ilaa/, the direct Arabic equivalent of to, is used in Arabic to denote the sense stated above.

8.4.2.1.2. Correct preposition for

Part 1, items 4; Part 2, item 21 and Part 3, item 17 require the use of the preposition for (see P. 336). Had the students thought of the Arabic preposition /li/ as the proper equivalent of for, they would not have committed the errors mentioned in Tables 28, 106 and 145.

8.4.2.1.3. Correct preposition from

In item 5 (P1), the correct preposition is from

The train would leave from platform 3.

All errors shown in Table 29 would not occur if the examinees knew that the English preposition from is the literal translation of the Arabic preposition /min/, which is used to denote this sense.

8.4.2.1.4. Correct preposition toward(s)

In items 6 and 35 (P1), the correct preposition is toward(s):

6. As we were walking toward(s) the platform, we saw another Iraqi family.

35. One of the birds was flying about a mile ahead of the ferry as if it were directing us toward(s) the island.

In both languages, the two equivalent prepositions toward(s) and

/nahwa/tijaaha/ are used to indicate continuity of movement. The preposition to was accepted as another possible answer. The highest numbers or errors made by the testees are the use of either into or on (see Table 59). The verb "walk", which sometimes demands the use of either preposition, is the only cause for the errors made. It is obvious that the examinees who used these prepositions thought only of what precedes, but not what follows, the blank.

8.3.2.1.5. Correct preposition behind

Part 1, items 7 and 59 and Part 3, item 16 demand the use of the preposition behind:

P1) 7. We greeted them and stood behind them.

59. We left the island and its beauty behind us.

P3) 16. There is a large garden behind their house.

Errors shown in Tables 31, 83 and 144 are not justifiable since the two prepositions, behind and /waraa?a, xalfa/ are equivalent in the two languages. The highest number of errors in Table 31 is caused by the use of the preposition among. It seems that the student could not understand the context because in a queue, people stand in front of and behind others but not among them. In Table 83, the highest number of errors is caused by the use of either the preposition to or for. The cause of this error is the use of the verb "leave", the literal translation of the Arabic verb /yugaadiru/ which requires the use of either /li' (for) or /?ilaa/ (to).

8.4.2.1.6. Correct preposition in

In items 8, 26, 37, and 41 (P1), the correct preposition is in:

8. We stood behind them in the queue.

26. The child was found in one of the toilets.

37. We were surprised to see what there was in the ferry.

41. The museum was built in a pleasant wood.

In all the above examples, if the examinees translated literally, they would use the proper preposition in because, in the two languages, the prepositions in and /min/ are equivalent. The highest number of errors made by the students in item 41 (see Table 65) is the use of the preposition by. The students thought that the construction "was built" was in the passive and therefore it needed an agent preceded by the preposition by.

8.4.2.1.7. Correct preposition aboard

Part 1, items 10 and 25; Part 2, item 4 and Part 3, item 1 require the use of the preposition aboard (see P. 336). If the students thought of the Arabic construction /9alaa jahri/ as a proper counterpart of the English preposition aboard (see the Arabic sentence on P. 337), they would not make the errors mentioned in Tables 34, 49, 89 and 129.

8.4.2.1.8. Correct preposition around/at

In items 11 and 52 (P1), the correct preposition is around/at:

11. My family all sat around/at the same table.

52. We all sat around/at the same table to have our lunch.

If the students thought of their NL, they would use the correct preposition because in the two languages, the two prepositions around and /hawla/ are equivalent. The most frequent error made by the testees in the above examples is the use of the preposition on (see Tables 35 and 76). The cause of this error is the verb "sit", which

sometimes requires the use of the preposition on.

8.4.2.1.9. Correct preposition next (to)

In item 12 (P1), the correct preposition is next to:

My wife sat next to me.

As Table 34 shows, many students used the preposition behind instead of next to. If the students had read carefully the previous sentence "My family sat at the same table", they would not have made this error.

8.4.2.1.10. Correct preposition on

Items 13 and 47 (P1), demand the use of the preposition on:

13. My sons sat on the seats.

47. We saw some of the children happily playing on the grass.

All errors made by the students (see Tables 37 and 71) when dealing with the above examples are unjustifiable, since the Arabic preposition /9alaa/, the counterpart of the English preposition on, is used in Arabic to convey the same sense.

8.4.2.1.11. Correct preposition facing

In items 14 and 50 (P1), the correct preposition is opposite/facing:

14. My two sons sat on the seats opposite/facing us.

50. It was a small neatly arranged room opposite/facing the sea.

Had the students thought of the Arabic preposition /muqaabila/ as the proper equivalent of the two prepositions opposite and facing, they would not have committed the errors mentioned in Tables 38 and 74. The most frequent error made by the examinees in item 14 is the

use of the preposition behind (see Table 38). This error is caused by the students' misunderstanding of the context. If the examinees read the previous sentence carefully "My family all sat at the same table", they could not use behind, because people face each other when sitting at the same table.

8.4.2.1.12. Correct preposition of

Part 1, item 20; Part 2, item 7 and Part 3, item 27 require the use of the preposition of

P1) 20. We were within two miles of the station.

P2) 7. We had an accident within a mile of the station.

P3) 27. The accident took place within three miles of the station.

Had the students thought of the Arabic preposition /9an/ as the proper equivalent of the English preposition of, they would not have made the errors mentioned in Tables 44, 92, and 155. Consider the following literal translation of item 20 above:

/kunnaa bihuduudi miilayni 9an almahattati/

(we were within two miles of the station)

8.4.2.1.13. Correct preposition alongside

Part 1, item 22, Part 2, item 18 and Part 3, item 6 require the use of the preposition alongside:

P1) 22. The ferry stopped alongside the quay.

P2) 18. The vessel anchored alongside the quay.

P3) 6. We saw a ship stopping alongside the quay.

If the testees thought of the Arabic preposition /bimuhaataati/, they would use the correct preposition alongside, since the two prepositions are equivalent in the two languages. In item 22 (see

Table 46), the use of the two prepositions in and on is prominent. The cause of this error is the verb "stop", which sometimes requires the use of either of the two prepositions.

8.4.2.1.14. Correct preposition up

In items 23 (P1) and 34 (P2), the correct preposition is up:

P1) 23. One of the crew asked the people to go up the steps.

P2) 34. The climbers went up the mountain.

Had the examinees thought of up as the proper equivalent of the Arabic preposition /ʔa9laa/ and the compound preposition /ʔilaa ʔa9laa/, they would not have made the errors mentioned in Tables 47 and 162. In Table 162, 90 students used the preposition to, the counterpart of the Arabic preposition /ʔilaa/, which often follows the verb /yathabu/ (go). Only 29 students, influenced by their MT, used the incorrect compound preposition to up, the literal translation of the Arabic compound preposition /ʔilaa ʔa9laa/, which is used in Arabic to indicate this sense, e.g.

/ʔahaba ʔalʔawlaadu ʔilaa ʔa9laa ʔaljabali/

(went the boys to up the mountain)

The boys went up the mountain.

8.4.2.1.15. Correct preposition into

In item 33 (P1), the correct preposition is into:

Birds were diving into the sea looking for their food.

As Table 57 shows, many students used either the preposition above or over thinking that what follows the word "birds" requires the use of these two prepositions.

8.4.2.1.16. Correct preposition near

Item 38 (P1), requires the use of the preposition near:

As we came near the island, we saw a lighthouse.

In Arabic, the preposition /qurba/, the equivalent of the English preposition near, is used to denote this sense. Yet, the students made many errors (see Table 62). The most frequent error made by the students when dealing with the same example, is the use of either the preposition from or into, the two prepositions that frequently follow the verb "come". The use of the two prepositions to and toward was accepted as another possibility.

8.4.2.1.17. Correct preposition along

Part 1, item 42; Part 2, item 27 and part 3, item 4 require the use of the preposition along:

P1) 42. To get there, we had to go along the main road.

P2) 27. She walked silently along the corridor to the meeting hall.

P3) 4. There are many tall trees along the road.

If the students had known that along and /tuula/ or /9alaa tuuli/ are equivalent in the two languages, they would not have made the errors mentioned in Tables 66, 112, and 132. The highest number of errors made by the students in item 4 (P3) is the use of either the preposition in or on, the literal translation of the two Arabic prepositions /fii/ and /9alaa/ which are also used to convey this sense.

8.4.2.1.18. Correct preposition before

In item 51 (P1), the correct preposition is before (see P. 350).

Had the students known the real function of prepositions of place relation, they would not have used the prepositions for and to mentioned in Table 75.

8.4.2.1.19. Correct preposition over

In item 53 (P1), the correct preposition is over:

My young daughter pulled the cloth which was spread over the table.

All the errors made by the examinees when dealing with this item (see Table 77) are not justifiable due to the fact that the two Arabic prepositions /fawqa/ and /9alaa/, the direct equivalents of over and on, can be used to denote this sense in Arabic.

8.4.2.1.20. Correct preposition along

In item 57 (P1), the proper preposition is along:

The children enjoyed themselves by pulling each other along the warm sand.

Had the students thought of their MT, they would have used the preposition on, the equivalent of the Arabic preposition /9alaa/ which is used to denote this sense in Arabic. As Table 81 shows, many students used the preposition by. They thought of "warm sand" mentioned in the sentence as a kind of instrument which requires the use of this preposition.

8.4.2.1.21. No preposition needed

In Part 1, item 61; Part 2, item 42 and Part 3, item 14, no preposition is needed and the examinees, therefore, had to use the null form, (see P. 349). However, as Tables 85, 127 and 142 show, many

students used the unnecessary preposition at because they did not know whether or not to use a preposition before the word "home".

8.4.2.1.22. Correct preposition on

In item 26 (P2), the correct preposition is on, (see P. 343). However, many students used the preposition at (see Table 111) because they did not know the preposition that the verb "live" requires in a certain context.

8.4.2.1.23. Correct preposition off

Item 35 (P2), requires the use of the preposition off:

We are off home now.

Had the students thought of the Arabic construction /ba9iidan 9an/(away from) which is used to denote this sense, they would not have used the preposition in (see Table 120).

8.4.2.1.24. Correct preposition into

In item 25 (P3), the correct preposition is into:

The plane crashed into the trees.

As Table 153 shows, many students used either the preposition by or with, thinking that the sentence is in the passive and thus, requires the use of these prepositions.

8.4.2.1.25. Correct preposition down

In item 39 (P3), the correct preposition is down:

The soldiers went down the mountain.

If the students knew that the preposition down is the counterpart

of the Arabic preposition /ʔasfala/ and the compound preposition /ʔilaa ʔasfali/, they would not commit the errors shown in Table 167. The most frequent error made by the testees in the above example is the use of the preposition to, the equivalent of the Arabic preposition /ʔilaa/, which often follows the verb /yathabu/ (go). Only 13 students used the incorrect compound preposition "to down" as they translated literally the other possibility, i.e. /ʔilaa ʔa9laa/.

8.4.2.2. Overlapping

This term indicates the use of one preposition rather than another due to the complexities of the English prepositional system. Many prepositions in English are interchangeable, i.e. a certain sense can be denoted by more than one preposition. However, there are some restrictions on this interchangeability. Though a preposition can be used instead of another to convey the same sense, this is not the case with all senses. The overlapping phenomenon was found responsible for many errors made by the examinees in the test. Errors of this type can be detected in the following items:

Part 1: items 6, 12, 16, 24, 27, 28, 30, 32, 33 and 53 (see Tables 30, 36, 40, 48, 51, 52, 54, 56, 57 and 77 respectively).

Part 2: items 1, 3, 6, 11, 12, 13, 17, 20, 23, 29, 30, 31, 32 and 34 (see Tables 86, 88, 91, 96, 97, 98, 102, 105, 108, 114, 115, 116, 117 and 119 respectively).

Part 3: items 11, 18, 23, 25, 29, 34, 38, and 40 (see Tables 139, 146, 151, 153, 157, 162, 166 and 168 respectively).

8.4.2.2.1. Correct preposition toward(s)

Item 6 (P1), requires the preposition toward(s):

As we were walking towards the platform, we saw another Iraqi family.

Though the preposition to can be used instead of toward(s) in the above example, it cannot denote the same meaning (see P. 145). The use of to indicates the completion of the movement whereas toward(s) conveys the idea that movement is not completed. Since this difference in meaning was unknown by the examinees, they used the preposition to, which was accepted as another correct possibility, instead of toward(s).

8.4.2.2.2. Correct preposition next(to)

In item 12 (P1), the correct preposition is next to:

My wife sat next to me.

Though the preposition beside was used by many students and was accepted as a correct answer, it does not indicate the same meaning conveyed by the preposition next to (see P. 140). The use of the preposition next to indicates that there is nothing separating the two objects, whereas the use of the preposition beside does not necessarily imply this meaning.

8.4.2.2.3. Correct preposition (a) through (b) across

a) Part 1, item 16; Part 2, item 32 and Part 3, item 23 require the use of the preposition through

P1) 16. The train went through many charming villages.

P2) 32. How long would it take us to go through this forest?

P3) 23. Most of the pupils come to school through the fields.

b) Part 1, item 30 and Part 2, item 20 require the use of the preposition across:

P1) 30. It would take us two hours to go across the sea to the island.

P2) 20. The lake was frozen, so we walked across the ice.

The most frequent error made by the students is the use of either across instead of through or vice versa (see Tables 40, 54, 105, 117 and 151). The main reason behind this error is the overlapping phenomenon between the two prepositions. Though sometimes across and through are interchangeable, they are not so in all the above examples (see P. 134).

8.4.2.2.4. Correct preposition onto

In items 24 (P1), 1 (P2) and 18 (P3), the correct preposition is onto:

P1) 24. One of the crew asked the people to go up the steps onto the ferry.

P2) 1. The cat jumped onto the mantelpiece.

P3) 18. The monkey climbed onto the tree.

The most frequent error made by the examinees is the use of the preposition on instead of onto (see Tables 48, 86 and 146). As mentioned on page 31, the reason behind this use is twofold: the overlapping between the two prepositions and the MT interference which was previously mentioned. Though, sometimes, the two prepositions on and onto are interchangeable in denoting certain senses, they are not so in all senses (see P. 145). The three verbs used in the above examples indicate movement and, thus, require the use of the preposition onto. For item 18 (P3) (see Table 146), the students used

the preposition over, which sometimes overlaps with the preposition on.

8.3.2.2.5. Correct preposition (a) above (b) over

a) In item 27 (P1), the correct preposition is above:

Above us was the upper deck.

b) Items 32 and 53 (P1) and 12 (P2), require the use of the preposition over

P1) 32. Most of the people were leaning over the ferry rails.

53. My young daughter pulled the cloth which was spread over the table.

P2) 12. The weather forecast says that there is a thick cloud over the south of England.

The highest number of errors made by the examinees in the above examples is caused by overlapping between the two prepositions above and over (see P. 132). While in the first example, many students used the preposition over instead of above (see Table 51), many students used the preposition above instead of over in the other examples (see Tables 56, 77, and 97). Furthermore, for items 53 (P1) and 12 (P2), many students used the preposition on instead of over. Overlapping between the two prepositions on and over caused this error.

8.4.2.2.6. Correct preposition below

In item 28 (P1), the correct preposition is below:

Above us was the upper deck and below us was the lower deck.

The most frequent error made by the testees is the use of the preposition under instead of below (see Table 52). Though the two prepositions under and below are sometimes interchangeable in denoting

certain senses, the use of one instead of the other causes an erroneous usage (see P. 139).

8.4.2.2.7. Correct preposition into

Part 1, items 33 and 55; Part 2, item 11 and Part 3, items 25 and 40 require the use of the preposition into (see P. 346). The most frequent error made by the students is the use of the preposition in instead of into (see Tables 57, 79, 96, 153 and 168). This error is either caused by overlapping between the two prepositions in and into or by MT interference, which was previously mentioned (see P. 33). Though sometimes the two prepositions are interchangeable, they are not so in the above mentioned examples. The verbs used in these sentences are of the types that require the use of the preposition into.

8.4.2.2.8. Correct prepositions between and among

In items 3 and 13 (P2), the correct prepositions are among and between (see P. 25).

The most frequent error made by the students in the above examples is the use of either between instead of among, as in first example or the use of among instead of between, as in the second example (see Tables 88 and 98). The cause of this error is the fact that in English there are no definite rules stating where to use between and where to use among, apart from the obsolete one which states that between is used in relation to two persons or things and among in relation to more than two (see P. 135). The first part of the rule is observed, i.e. the preposition between, but never among, is used when there are only two objects. But the second part of the rule proves to be false,

since the preposition between can also be used in relation to more than two, as in the second example.

8.4.2.2.9. Correct preposition out of

Part 2, item 6 and part 3, item 29 require the use of the preposition out of (see P. 28). The most frequent error made by the students is the use of the preposition from instead of out of (see Tables 91 and 157). Though, some times, these two prepositions are interchangeable, the use of from instead of out of in the above mentioned examples indicates a different meaning.

8.4.2.2.10. Correct preposition (a) in (b) at

a) In item 17 (P2), the correct preposition is in:

She lives in Oakfield Avenue.

b) Items 23 and 31 (P2) and 11 (P3), require the preposition at:

P2) 23. She lives at 37 Park Avenue.

31. We got our lunch at the restaurant.

P3) 11. Suha was studying at Mosul University.

The most frequent error made by the examinees in the first and second examples is caused by the overlapping phenomenon between the two prepositions in and at when used in addresses (see P. 137). While in item 17 (P2), many students used the preposition at instead of in (see Table 102), many students in item 23 (P2) used the preposition in instead of at (see Table 108).

In items 31 (P2) and 11 (P3), the highest number of errors made by the students is the use of the preposition in instead of at (see Tables 116 and 139). Though the two prepositions in and at are, sometimes, interchangeable, the use of in instead of at in these two

examples is not accepted in English (see P. 136).

8.4.2.2.11. Correct prepositions over and across

In item 29 and 34 in part 2, the correct prepositions are over and across respectively:

29. When we last saw him, he was climbing slowly over the fence.

34. He walked across the room smiling strangely.

The most frequent error made by the testees is either the use of across instead of over as in the first example (see Table 114), or over instead of across, as in the second example (see Table 119). Though the two prepositions over and across are, sometimes, interchangeable, they are not so in the above two examples (see P. 133).

8.4.2.2.12. Correct preposition over/below

In item 30 (P2), the correct preposition is either over or below (see P. 367). But, as Table 115 shows, many students used the preposition under, which, although used instead of below to denote certain senses, is not used in this case.

8.4.2.3. Graphic similarity

This means the use of one preposition instead of another under the influence of some kind of graphic similarity between the two prepositions. These errors appear to be very few throughout the test. The items that show such errors are 18, 22, 36, and 41 in Part 2 of the test.

In item 18, many students used the preposition along instead of alongside (see Table 103). In item 22, the preposition of was used

instead of off by many students (see Table 107). In item 36, the examinees used the preposition through instead of throughout (see Table 121). In item 41, the preposition throughout was used instead of through (see Table 126).

The discussion of the possible causes of intralingual errors shows that out of the 87 causes 51 (58.63%) are related to partial learning, 32 (36.78%) are related to overlapping and only 4 (4.59%) are related to graphic similarity.

The causes of errors in the whole test can be summed up as follows:

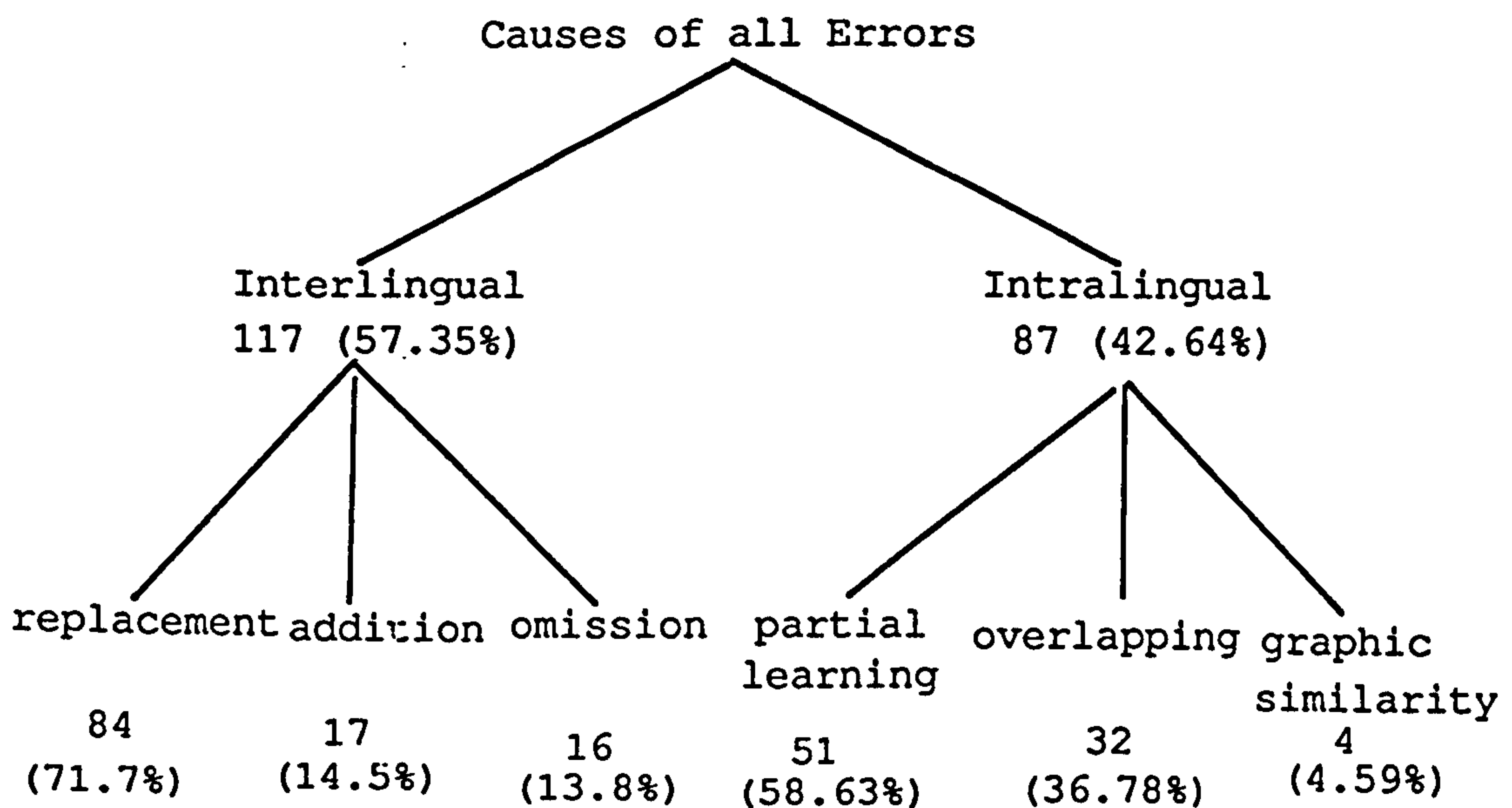


Figure 5

The following conclusions can be drawn from the results obtained from EA:

1. The category "prepositions" is a very complicated linguistic

area for Iraqi learners of English. Interlingual and intralingual factors influenced the examinees to choose incorrect prepositions. It is observed from the bad results of the test that even those who are going to be teachers of English at primary and secondary schools in Iraq face many difficulties when dealing with this linguistic area.

2. Most of the interlingual errors were the result of direct translation from Arabic into English. Replacement of one preposition instead of the other is the most dominant factor compared to addition and omission.

3. Errors were committed even when literal translation is supposed to bring about the correct preposition. This refutes Contravists' claim that similar structures will be easy to learn because they can be easily transferred and may function satisfactorily in the TL (see P. 11).

4. Concerning intralingual errors, partial learning and overlapping are more influential factors than graphic similarity because the errors made by the last factor are very few. The use of of instead of off is the commonest error which confuses a lot of native speakers too.

Chapter Nine

Comparison of CA Predictions with Test Results

9.1. Introduction

The main purpose of this chapter is to find out whether the results gained from CA correspond to those gained from EA. This is being done in order to determine the benefit of applying the two approaches, i.e. CA and EA, together in such studies. It is supposed that a combination of CA and EA will overcome the criticism aimed at CA and EA when used separately. For example, prepositions that are avoided and cannot be traced back by EA (as "The plane crashed into the trees", which was replaced by the examinees with "The plane crashed the trees") and which may escape the teacher's attention, will be pointed out and highlighted by CA. Conversely, EA will shed light on the weakness of CA, i.e. that what it predicts as a difficulty does not always in practice turn out to be so.

This chapter will deal with all the senses included in the three parts of the test. All the errors made by the students will be compared with those predicted by CA to see whether they actually occur or not.

9.2. List of Comparison

9.2.1. Aboard

in or on (a ship, a plane, and sometimes a train or a bus).

The test results confirmed the four errors predicted by CA. In Table 34, the use of the null form formed 14% of the errors, in Table

89, the use of on formed 60% and in Table 129, the use of on and to formed 53% and 19% respectively. It seems that the examinees translate literally from Arabic into English to denote this sense.

9.2.2. About

1. encircling; (a)round

The two errors predicted by CA were confirmed by the EA results. Table 118 shows that 48% of the errors was caused by the use of the preposition on, the literal translation of the Arabic preposition /9alaa/ and 32% was caused by the use of the preposition in, the literal translation of the Arabic preposition /fii/.

2. from place to place within a specified area

The use of the preposition in instead of about to indicate this sense was predicted by CA and confirmed by EA. Table 45 shows that 12% of the errors was caused by the use of the preposition in. The other two errors, i.e. to and toward, were not predicted by CA. The cause behind these errors is the students' misunderstanding of the meaning of the verb "wander".

9.2.3. Above

The results of EA do not correspond to what was predicted by CA. Table 51 shows that only 9% of the errors was caused by the use of the preposition over instead of above. The same table shows that 28 students used the preposition for, unaware that the use of this preposition is unacceptable because it does not indicate a spatial sense in this context. The cause of this error is the students' misunderstanding of the context, since they used the preposition for

to indicate the idea of receiving something. Also 19 examinees used the preposition ahead of due to their misunderstanding of the context, since they may not be familiar with ferries' design.

9.2.4. Across.

1. stretching from one side to another

EA shows that three errors were made by the examinees in denoting this sense. Two of them, i.e. the use of over and above, correspond to what was predicted by CA. Table 87 shows that 53% of the errors was caused by the use of the preposition over and 35% by the use of above, while Table 130 shows that 55% of the errors was caused by the use of over and 21% by the use of above. However, the other frequent error, i.e. the use of the preposition on, was not predicted by CA. The use of on by 18 students in Table 87 and 151 in Table 130 was due to the overlapping phenomenon between the English prepositions over, above and on, as well as between the Arabic prepositions /fawqa/ (over/above) and /9alaa/ (on).

2. from one side to another

The two frequent errors, namely the use of to and in, made by the examinees in items 30 in part 1 and 16 in part 2 of the test (see Tables 54 and 101) were not predicted by CA. The first error was caused by the use of the verb "go", the literal translation of the Arabic verb /yathabu/, which often requires the use of the preposition /?ilaa/ (to). The cause of the other error was the use of the verb "swim", the literal translation of the Arabic verb /yasbaḥu/, which always demands the use of the preposition /fii/ (in).

9.2.5. Against

in contact with

The EA result entirely corresponds with the difficulty predicted by CA. Table 110 shows that 63% of the errors was caused by the use of the preposition on, the literal translation of the Arabic preposition /9alaa/, which is used to denote this sense.

9.2.6. Ahead of

in front of

The error predicted by EA, i.e. the use of the preposition before instead of ahead of, was confirmed by two items of the test. Tables 90 and 133 show that the use of the preposition before formed 64% of the errors made by the students. The other frequent error, i.e. the use of above, shown in Table 58 was not predicted by CA. The use of this preposition cannot be related to MT interference; its cause was probably due to the use of the verb "fly" which frequently requires the use of this preposition.

9.2.7. Along

from end to end

Of the five frequent errors made by the examinees, only three were predicted by CA. Table 128 shows that 53% of the errors was caused by the addition of the preposition on. In Table 66 and 134, the use of the preposition on and in formed 77% of the errors.

The other frequent errors, namely, the use of into (Table 66), by (Table 81), throughout (Table 112) and in and into (Table 132), were not predicted by CA. The incorrect use of the prepositions in, into, and on (see Tables 66 and 112) was caused by the use of the verb

"walk", the literal translation of the Arabic verb /yasiiru/, which often requires the use of /9alaa/ (on) or /fii/ (in). The cause of the use of the preposition by in Table 81 was the students' misunderstanding of the context. They thought that "the warm sand" was an instrument which required the use of by. The reason behind the use of the preposition throughout in Table 122 was the graphic similarity between throughout and through, the literal translation of the Arabic preposition /xilaala/, which sometimes follows the verb /yasiiru/.

9.2.8. Alongside

with the length including

The error predicted by CA, i.e. the use of the preposition beside instead of alongside, was not confirmed by EA. Tables 46, 103 and 134 show that 86% of the errors was caused by the use of the preposition along. The reason behind the use of on and near was the verb "stop", the literal translation of the Arabic verb /yaqifu/, which often requires the use of one of these prepositions. The use of along instead of alongside was due to the graphic similarity between along and alongside.

9.2.9. Among

in the midst of or surrounded by

The difficulty predicted by CA, i.e. the use of between instead of among, was confirmed in two items of the test. Tables 90 and 135 show that 85% of the errors was the use of between. The use of the null form by the students in item 44 in part 1 of the test (see Table 68) was not predicted by CA. The cause of this error was the students' misunderstanding of the context. They thought that there should be no

preposition separating the relative pronoun "which" and the noun it represents.

9.2.10. Around

1. encircling

The error made by the students in item 11 in part 1 of the test was not predicted by CA. Table 35 shows that 81 students out of 290 used the preposition on instead of around. The cause of this error was twofold. First, it was due to the use of the verb "sit", the literal translation of the Arabic verb /yajlusu/, which often requires the use of the preposition /9alaa/ (on). Second, in the students' colloquial language, the preposition /9alaa/ is often used to denote this sense.

2. situated in a curve or at an angle

Three frequent errors were made by the examinees in expressing this sense (see Tables 113 and 137). Two of them, i.e. in and at, were predicted by CA. They formed 83% of the errors. The other one, i.e. the use of on, was not predicted by CA. The cause of this error was the use of the verb "build", the literal translation of the Arabic verb /yabni/, which sometimes requires the use of the preposition /9alaa/ (on) to indicate the location of the building.

9.2.11. At

1. the place where something happened or is situated

The EA results correspond to CA predictions in most of the instances where the preposition at is used. Tables 41, 95, 108, 147 and 166 show that the use of the preposition in instead of at formed 65% of the errors. In item 3 in part 1 of the test, the CA prediction

was not justified by EA results. The most frequent error made by the testees (see Table 27) was the use of the preposition from instead of at. The cause of this error was the use of the verb "get", the literal translation of the Arabic construction "yahsal 9alaa", which is often followed by the preposition /min/ (from). In items 10 and 31 in part 2 of the test, the use of the null form (Tables 95 and 116) was not predicted by CA. The reason behind the error which occurred in item 10 was the word "home", which in English sometimes requires the use of a preposition and sometimes does not. If the examinees had translated the sentence literally, they would not have used the null form since the verb /yabqaa/ (stay) requires the use of the preposition /fii/ (in). In item 31, the use of the null form was caused by the use of the verb "live", the literal translation of the Arabic verb /yaskunu/, which can be used without any following preposition.

2. towards with intention of hitting

The CA prediction was confirmed by EA results in the use of the preposition on but not in the use of to. Tables 109 and 143 show that 60% of the errors was caused by the use of the the preposition on instead of at. However, 13% of the examinees used the preposition to. The cause of this error was the use of the verb "throw" which, in its Arabic literal translation /yarmi/, is sometimes followed by the preposition on /9alaa/ and sometimes by to /?ilaa/ with the meaning "towards". It seems that the students did not differentiate between the two meanings.

3. the place where someone arrives

What was predicted by CA corresponds to EA results. Tables 33,

123, and 149 show that 76% of the errors was caused by the use of either the preposition to or the null form.

9.2.12. Before

in front of

The EA results do not correspond with CA predictions. Table 75 shows that the use of either the preposition for or to formed 63% of the errors. The reason behind the use of these prepositions is the students' misunderstanding of the context. They used these prepositions to indicate the idea of receiving something unaware that the use of to and for in this context did not indicate a spatial sense.

9.2.13. Behind

at the back

All the errors made by the examinees in items 7 and 51 in part 1, and 16 in part 3 of the test (see Tables 31, 83, and 144) were not predicted by CA. In Table 31, 32% of the errors was caused by the use of the preposition among. The cause of this error was the students' misunderstanding of the context, because in a queue, people stand in front of and behind, but not among, each other. In Table 83, the use of to or for formed 41% of the errors. The cause of this error is the same one stated above.

9.2.14. Below

lower in position than

The CA prediction was justified by EA results. Table 52 shows that the use of the preposition under formed 20% of the errors. The cause

of this error is that, in Arabic, there is only one preposition, namely /tahta/, which denotes the meanings of the four English prepositions below, under, underneath, and beneath.

9.2.15. Between

having one of two things on either side

The two frequent errors made by the students in item 15 in part 1 of the test (see Table 39) and in item 13 in part 2 of the test (see Table 98) were not predicted by CA. Table 39 shows that the use of behind formed 33% of the errors committed by the testees. The reason behind this error was the students' misunderstanding of the context, since the four members of the family were sitting at the same table. Table 98 shows that 94% of the errors was caused by the use of the preposition among instead of between. The cause of this error was twofold. First, in Arabic, there is only one preposition, namely /bayna/, which denotes the meanings of the two English prepositions among and between. Second, the students were confused about whether to use between or among due to overlapping between these two prepositions.

9.2.16. Beyond

past or on the further side of

Three frequent errors were made by the examinees in item 12 in part 3 of the test. Only one error, i.e. the use of the construction "far from", was predicted by CA. Table 140 shows that 48% of the errors was caused by the use of the construction "far from", the literal translation of the Arabic construction /ʔab9adu min/, which is used in Arabic to denote this sense. The other two frequent errors,

i.e. from and to, which formed 25% of the errors were not predicted by CA. The cause in these cases was the verb "go", the literal translation of the Arabic verb /yathabu/, which requires the use of /?ilaa/ (to) or /min/ (from).

9.2.17. By

1. near or at the side of

The CA prediction does not correspond to EA results. The most frequent error made by the students in item 56 in part 1 of the test was the use of the preposition on (Table 80). The cause of this error, forming 15% of the errors, was the students' colloquial language, which allows the use of the preposition /9alaa/ (on) to convey the same meaning.

2. via

The CA prediction, i.e. the use of from instead of by in denoting this sense, was justified by EA. Table 163 shows that 46% of the errors made by the students in item 35 in part 3 of the test was caused by the use of the preposition from.

9.2.18. Down

movement from a higher to a lower level

The two frequent errors, i.e. to and under, made by the examinees in item 39 in part 3 of the test (Table 143) were not predicted by CA. The cause of the first error, which formed 35% of the errors, was the use of the verb "went", the literal translation of the Arabic verb /tahaba/, which is often followed by the preposition /?ilaa/ (to). The reason behind the other error, which formed 38% of the errors, was the

overlapping between the two Arabic prepositions /taħta/ (under) and /ʔasfala/ (down).

9.2.19. Facing

looking towards something

None of the errors made by the students in items 14 and 60 in part 1 and 24 in part 3 of the test (see Tables 38, 74, and 152) were predicted by CA. In all these tables, there is no distinctive frequent error apart from the use of behind in item 14 in part 1 of the test (Table 38). The cause of this error, which formed 20% of the errors, and also of the variety of other errors, was the students' misunderstanding of the context in that they did not realise that people face each other when they sit at the same table.

9.2.20. For

destination

The CA prediction, i.e. the use of to instead of for, was confirmed by EA. Tables 28, 106 and 145 show that 63% of the errors made by the testees was the use of the preposition to, the literal translation of the Arabic preposition /ʔilaa/ which often follows the verb /yugaadiru/ (leave) in Arabic.

9.2.21. From

a point or a place of departure

None of the errors made by the examinees in item 5 in part 1 of the test were predicted by CA. Table 29 shows that 16% of the errors was caused by the use of the preposition at. The cause of this error was the use of the NP's "train" and "platform" which sometimes require

the use of at.

9.2.22. In

location

None of the errors made by the testees in items 8, 26, 37, and 41 in part 1 and 17 in part 2 of the test were predicted by CA. In Tables 32, 50, and 61, there are no distinctive frequent errors since there is no certain cause which may influence the examinees to choose a certain incorrect preposition. In Table 65, the most frequent error made by the examinees was the use of either from or by. The cause of the first error, which formed 45% of the errors, was the verb "build", the literal translation of the Arabic verb /yabnii/, which requires the use of /min/ (from) to indicate the material of which something was built. The reason behind the second error, i.e. by, which formed 11% of the errors, was the construction "be + PP" which the testees thought was a passive form and thus needed the preposition by to precede the agent. The use of either the preposition at or the null form in item 17 in part 2 (Table 102) was the most frequent error made by the testees. The cause of the first error, which formed 44% of the errors, was the overlapping between the two prepositions in and at in English. The other error, i.e. the null form, which formed 40% of the errors, was caused by MT interference, since, in Arabic, the verb /yaskun/ (live) can be used without being followed by a preposition in this sense.

9.2.23. Into

1. towards and then entry or insertion in

The CA prediction, i.e. the use of in instead of into, was

justified in some instances. Tables 82 and 96 show that 40% of the errors was caused by the use of the preposition in. In Table 57, the use of above and over formed 28% of the errors. The cause of this error is the NP "birds" which is often followed by the verb "fly" and either the preposition over or above. It seems that the examinees did not understand the meaning of "dive", thinking that it meant "fly". Table 153 shows that the use of the preposition by in item 25 in part 3 of the test was the most frequent error made by the students. The cause of this error, which formed 22% of the errors, was the students' misunderstanding of the context. They thought that the verb "crashed" was in the passive form and thus the preposition by was needed to precede the agent "tree".

9.2.24. Near (to)

closeness, vicinity or proximity

None of the errors made by the students in item 38 in part 1 of the test were predicted by CA. Table 62 shows that 44% of the errors made by the testees was caused by the use of either into or from. The reason behind these two errors was the verb "come", which frequently requires the use of either of these two prepositions.

9.2.25. Next (to)

immediately beside

The CA prediction, i.e. the use of the preposition beside instead of next (to) was not justified in item 12 in part 1 of the test. Table 36 shows that 44% of the errors made by the examinees was caused by the use of the preposition behind. The cause of this error was the students' misunderstanding of the context, i.e. the four members of

the family were sitting at the same table.

9.2.26. Of .

1. the distance from a given point

The CA prediction corresponds with the EA results. Tables 44, 92, and 155 show that the use of the preposition from in items 20 in part 1, 7 in part 2 and 37 in part 3 of the test formed 41% of the errors. The other frequent error, i.e. the use of by (Table 92) was not predicted by CA. The reason behind this error, which formed 23% of the errors, was that the examinees thought that the preposition by could be used here to denote closeness, unaware that in this construction, i.e. within + NP + of", the preposition of is the only word that can fill the slot.

2. position or direction

In item 2 in part 1, 37 in part 2 and 26 in part 3, the EA results correspond to what was predicted by CA. Tables 26, 122 and 154 show that 73% of the errors made by the examinees was caused by the use of either the preposition from or the null form.

9.2.27. Off

1. away from

The use of the incorrect construction "far from", which formed 77% of the errors shown in Table 165, was the only error predicted by CA. None of the other errors in Tables 63, 120, and 165 were predicted by CA. The most frequent error made by the students in item 35 in part 2 of the test (Table 120) was the use of either in or the null form. The cause of the first error, which formed 58% of the errors, was the

students' misunderstanding of English. They thought that in, like its Arabic counterpart /fii/, could precede the word "home". The second error, i.e. the use of the null form, which formed 40% of the errors, was caused by the use of the word "home", which sometimes requires a preposition and sometimes does not.

2. from whatever is mentioned

Of the five frequent errors made by the students in item 28 in part 3 of the test (Table 156), only two errors, i.e. the use of from and "from on", which formed 36% of the errors, were predicted by CA. The other frequent errors, namely down, of and on, were not predicted. The reason behind the use of down and on, which formed 33% of the errors, was the verb "fell", which sometimes requires the use of either of these two prepositions. The cause of the use of the preposition of, which formed only 4%, was the graphic similarity between the prepositions of and off.

9.2.28. On

position in relation to another object

The CA prediction, i.e. the use of in instead of on, was confirmed by the EA results. Tables 64, 73, 94, and 111 show that 47% of the errors was caused by the use of the preposition in. The other error which was predicted by CA and confirmed by EA was the use of the null form. Table 111 shows that 15% of the errors was caused by the use of the null form. The other frequent errors, i.e. at and among, were not predicted by CA. The use of either at or among in item 13 in part 1 (Table 37) formed 24% of the errors. The cause of this error was the use of the verb "sit", which sometimes requires the use of either of

these prepositions. In item 26 in part 2 (Table 111), the use of the preposition at formed 33% of the errors. The cause of this error is the overlapping between the two prepositions in and at with respect to addresses.

9.2.29. Onto

motion towards the upper surface of something

Of the four frequent errors made by the examinees, namely on, over, to up and the null form, only two, i.e. the preposition on and the construction to up, were predicted by CA. Tables 86, and 146 show that the use of on and to up formed 65% of the errors committed by the students. The other two frequent errors, i.e. over and the null form (see Table 122), were not predicted by CA. The reasons behind the use of the preposition over, which formed 20% of the errors, are twofold. First, in Arabic, the preposition /9alaa/ (on) is used with the verb /tasallaqa/ (climbed) to indicate this sense. Second, the students were confused about the use of these two prepositions owing to overlapping between them. The cause of the second error, i.e. the null form, which formed 20% of the errors, was the students' attempt to avoid using a preposition although it is there in the Arabic sentence. This is a successful avoidance strategy because the omission of the preposition does not affect the general meaning.

9.2.30. Out of

1. from within or from inside

Two frequent errors, namely the use of from and in, were made by the testees in item 6 in part 2 of the test (Table 91). Only the use of the preposition from, which formed 66% of the errors, was predicted

by CA. The other error, i.e. the use of in, which formed 29% of the errors, was not predicted. The cause of this error was that the examinees did not differentiate between the meaning of "put", which requires the use of in, and "take".

2. the idea of removing something from the place where it is enclosed or stored

The CA prediction, i.e. the use of from instead of out of, was justified by EA. Table 157 shows that 42% of the errors was caused by the use of the preposition from.

3. from or through something to the outside

The CA prediction, i.e. the use of from instead of out of, was not confirmed by the EA results. In items 46 in part 1 of the test (Table 70), the use of the preposition to formed 31% of the errors. The cause of this error was the use of the verb "went", which frequently requires the use of this preposition.

9.2.31. Over

1. above and covering/touching

The EA results correspond with CA predictions in relation to items 32 and 53 in part 1 and 12 in part 2 of the test. The reasons behind the use of the two prepositions above and on instead of over (see Tables 56, 77 and 97) are twofold. First, in Arabic, the preposition /fawqa/ stands for the meaning of the three English prepositions over, above and on. Second, the overlapping between the above three prepositions in English caused the students confusion about the correct choice.

2. above and onto the other side

The two frequent errors, i.e. the use of above and across, in item 29 in part 2 of the test (Table 114) were not predicted by CA. The incorrect use of these prepositions, which formed 79% of the errors, was caused by the overlapping between the three preposition over, above and across in English.

3. beyond

Of the three errors, i.e. in, inside and under, made by the students in item 30 in part 2 of the test (Table 115), only the use of in, which formed 33% of the errors, was predicted by CA. The use of inside, which formed 27% of the errors, was caused by the overlapping between in and inside in English and their counterparts /fii/, /daaxila/ and /fii daaxili/ in Arabic. The cause of the third error, i.e. under, forming 40% of the errors, was the verb "disappear", the literal translation of the Arabic verb /?ixtafaa/, which sometimes requires the use of the preposition /tahta/ (under) to indicate a similar sense.

9.2.32. Past.

passing by someone or something

The CA prediction was not justified by EA results in item 43 in part 1 of the test. Table 67 shows that the most frequent error made by the examinees was the use of either among or through. The cause of these two errors, which formed 24% of the errors, was the verb "walk", which sometimes requires the use of either of the above two prepositions. All the other incorrect usages were due to the

nonexistence of an Arabic counterpart of the English preposition past.

9.2.33. Through

1. the idea of penetration

The CA prediction was justified by EA results. Table 148 and 159 show that 69% of the errors made by the examinees in items 20 and 31 in part 3 of the test was caused by the use of either the preposition from or the construction "from through".

2. by way of

Two frequent errors, namely in and inside, were committed by the students in item 25 in part 2 of the test (Table 110). While the first error, which formed 41% of the errors, was predicted by CA, the second one, which formed 35% of the errors, was not. The reason for the use of inside was the overlapping between the two English prepositions in and inside, as well as the overlapping between their Arabic counterparts /fii/, /fii daaxili/ and /daaxila/.

3. the point by way of which something passes on a course or route.

In dealing with this sense, the examinees made five errors, namely in, across, to, throughout, and within (see Tables 40, 126, and 150). Only two of these errors, i.e. in and across, which formed 33% of the errors, were predicted by CA. The use of the preposition to, which formed 20% of the errors (Tables 40 and 150) was caused by the verb "went", which often requires its use. The reason behind the use of throughout, which formed 33% of the errors (Table 126), was the graphic similarity between through and throughout. The cause of the

other error, i.e. within, forming 47% of the errors, was the overlapping between inside and within, both of which can be literally translated by the Arabic preposition /daaxila/.

9.2.34. Throughout

in every part of some specified place

The three errors, i.e. in, on and on whole, predicted by CA were confirmed by the EA results. Table 161 shows that 71% of the errors made by the testees was caused by the use of either of the above prepositions.

9.2.35. To

the point of arrival or completion

None of the errors made by the testees in items 1, 31, 48, and 55 in part 1 of the test (see Tables 25, 55, 72, and 579 were predicted by CA, since the two prepositions to and /?ilaa/ are equivalent in denoting their spatial senses. Table 55 shows that 55% of the errors, was caused by the use of in, toward or around. The use of in and around, which formed 21% of the errors was caused by the NP "island", the literal translation of the Arabic word /jaziirah/, which requires the use of /fii/ (in) or /hawla/ (around). The reason behind the use of toward, which formed 10% of the errors, was the verb "go", which sometimes requires the use of this preposition. The preposition of, forming 16% of the errors, was used to indicate possession, due to the students' misunderstanding of the context.

9.2.36. Toward

in the direction of

None of the errors committed by the examinees in items 6 and 35 in part 1 of the test (see Tables 30 and 59) were predicted by CA. Table 30 shows that 40% of the errors made by the students was caused by the use of either into, on or through. The cause of this error was the verb "walk", which sometimes requires the use of either of these prepositions.

9.2.37. Up

moving to a higher place

Apart from the use of "to up", which formed only 14% of the errors, none of the other errors committed by the students in items 23 in part 1 and 4 in part 2 of the test (see Tables 47 and 162) were predicted by CA. The most frequent error made by the students was the use of the preposition to. The cause of this error, forming 39% of the errors, was the use of the verb "go", which frequently requires the use of this preposition. The other frequent error, i.e. the use of on, above and over, which formed 39% of the errors, was caused by the overlapping between these prepositions, as well as the overlapping between their Arabic counterparts /fawqa/ and /9alaa/.

9.2.38. Via

by way of

Only the use of the preposition in, which only formed 14% of the errors (Table 124), was predicted by CA. The other error, i.e. over, which formed 56% of the errors, was not predicted. The cause of this error was the NP "stairs", the literal translation of the Arabic word /sullam/, which sometimes requires the use of the preposition /fawqa/ (over).

9.2.39. Null Form (x)

The obligatory non-use of a preposition in certain contexts is problematic for Iraqi/Arab learners, since they do not have such a case in Arabic. In some contexts in Arabic, the use of a preposition is optional, i.e. the use or non-use of a preposition in that context is fully grammatical, e.g.

/daxalnaa ?albinaayata/

(entered we the building)

We entered the building.

or

/daxalnaa ?ilaa/fii ?albinaayati/

(entered we to/in the building)

we entered the building.

This point is relevant to items 45 in part 1, 8 in part 2 and 36 in part 3 (see Tables 69, 93 and 164) where 66% of the errors was caused by the use of either in, into, inside or to, the literal translations of the Arabic prepositions /fii/, /daaxila/fii daaxili/ and /?ilaa/ respectively.

In dealing with items 61 in part 1, 42 in part 2 and 14 in part 3, the use of either to or at formed 72% of the errors shown in Tables 85, 127 and 142. The use of the preposition to was predicted by CA since its Arabic counterpart /?ilaa/laam/ must precede the word /bayt/ (home) in similar contexts. The use of the preposition at was not predicted because this preposition can be used in English to precede the word "home" in certain contexts to indicate location.

This chapter set out to compare the CA predictions about

prepositional usage with EA findings, in order to justify or invalidate the line of thought proposing that a combination of CA and EA would result in more reliable results. In view of the CA and EA results, one can conclude the following:

1. The instances where CA predictions correspond to the EA results constitute only .41%. The reasons behind the 51% of difference are threefold. Firstly, many instances where the two approaches do not correspond are due to collocations between verbs and prepositions. This, as mentioned on page 354, forms 30% of the causes of errors. If CA can be revised to incorporate this linguistic area, it will be a more reliable approach. Secondly, factors other than MT interference such as overlapping, partial learning and graphic similarity, caused many problems for Iraqi/Arab learners. Thirdly, many other errors were committed because the examinees could not understand the context where a preposition was used, owing to lack of proficiency in English.

2. Contrastive analyses, at their best, cannot predict all the problems a group of learners face in dealing with any linguistic area in the TL.

3. EA cannot explain the causes of a large number of errors, i.e. intralingual errors, unless it makes use of CA.

4. A combination of CA and EA findings will be invaluable to all those dealing with pedagogy, since the application of the two approaches together is a more reliable guide for the treatment of all errors.

Chapter Ten

Pedagogical Implications and Conclusions

10.1. Introduction

The field of foreign/second language teaching and learning has traditionally been the provenance of foreign/second language teachers. Many articles have been written on how to teach foreign/second languages, and researchers in this field strive to present new methodological techniques depending on various learning theories and on classroom experience. It has generally been believed that foreign/second language learners' proficiency has been affected in one way or another by the teaching techniques employed.

Generally speaking, languages are difficult to learn, but what it is that constitutes such difficulty is still a baffling problem. Specialists such as educationalists, applied linguists and psycholinguists have attempted to discover and predict the real causes of learning difficulties. These attempts are of great value to those who deal with language pedagogy, since such activities provide them with a certain degree of knowledge of the potential problematic areas that hinder the language learning process. Teaching materials, teaching strategies and evaluation of progress and achievement are organized accordingly.

Since the early days of research in foreign/second language teaching and learning, there has been no consensus among methodologists about the optimal methods for successful learning. Proponents of each new approach often claim that they have offered very important contributions to language pedagogy. However, what is

claimed by one group of applied linguists as revolutionary in this field, is, to others, merely a rethinking of early ideas and procedures. As a result, nobody really knows what is new or what is old, what is good and what is bad in present-day language teaching procedures. Driller, in his analysis of the history of language teaching, argues that the last hundred years has been a back-and-forth struggle between two main theories; "the history of foreign language teaching did not have a linear development and the great theoretical division between linguists — the empiricists versus the rationalists — also divides the language teaching methodologies" (Diller, 1971: 5). Furthermore, the obvious discrepancy between, on the one hand, the successful second language acquisition demonstrated by huge numbers of proficient bilinguals and, on the other, the regular failure of second language teaching in so many school language programmes, makes the debate bitter, but leads, as Driller points out, to the fact that "the new methods for language teaching which are continually being invented are advertised as if they were patent medicines for some heretofore incurable ailment" (Diller, 1971: 2). Nevertheless, if one is to remain optimistic about the possibility of progress, it is necessary, Spolsky (1978: 250) states, that "we distinguish between the various panaceas proposed for the language teaching problem, and the gradual development of a body of practices and principles firmly anchored in sound theory and based on empirical practical experience".

The aim of this chapter is to place in the hands of the teacher and the textbook writer a collection of data which may inform him of present developments in language research, concentrating on the utility of CA and EA in language teaching. It is also hoped that the methods of teaching English prepositions of place relation proposed by

different researchers, including the present writer, will be of benefit to those concerned with teaching English to Iraqi/Arab learners. A comparison between the importance given to these problematic words by many researchers and the way they are presented in the English Course for Iraq, will reveal that prepositions of place relation, though they are greatly needed in spoken and written language, have received inadequate attention in the Iraqi course. This indifferent treatment may be the cause of the distressing number and types of errors made by the Iraqi students in the test.

10.2. Contrastive Linguistics and Foreign/Second Language Teaching

The main purpose of comparing two languages, as pointed out in chapter one, is to find out the similarities and differences between the MT and the TL. The contribution of CA to foreign/second language teaching, therefore, lies in indicating and diagnosing these differences and possibly predicting the difficulties that the learner might face. This will determine, according to contrastivists, what the learner has to learn and, accordingly, what the teacher has to teach. It is argued that, if a teacher of a foreign/second language wishes to achieve optimal results in the classroom, he must be familiar with the NL of his pupils. This helps him to know the similar and dissimilar features of the two languages and thereby concentrate on those features which constitute considerable difficulty for his students. Politzer and Staubach (1961: 1) say:

By comparing the linguistic analysis of the native language of the learner..... with that of

the language to be studied..... we highlight the major difficulties encountered by the learner. This comparison enables us to construct teaching and testing materials quite systematically and to give due emphasis to the points of real difficulty.

On page 8, the writers go on to speak of

..... a language teaching methodology which, through systematic drills, attempts to build up the student's knowledge of the structure of the foreign language, which at the same time eliminating those errors which are caused by the patterns of the student's native language.

Rivers (1968: 13) makes the statement that "Teaching methods rest on the careful scientific analysis of the contrasts between the learner's language and the target language". On page 14, she adds "This is the distinctive contribution of the linguistic scientists and the results of studies of these contrasts are incorporated in the materials prepared for class and laboratory work".

This applicability of CA to foreign/second language teaching is supported by Ferguson (1965), who states in his introduction to the contrastive structure series that

..... a careful contrastive analysis of the two languages offers an excellent basis for the preparation of instructional materials, the planning of courses, and the development of

actual classroom techniques.

Thus, in foreign/second language teaching, the data supplied by CA can be of great value to the student, the teacher, and the textbook writer. The classroom presentation of contrastive data to intelligent and interested students can help them to understand and hence overcome some of their learning problems. For the teacher, it is obvious that knowledge of contrastive data is highly desirable. It enables him to understand certain problems as they arise in class and sometimes to supplement the textbook by devising on-the-spot corrective treatment. For the textbook writer, contrastive data are clearly important and even essential. They can be the basis for decisions about the grouping and sequencing of items, and the kinds of drills or exercises in which they should be presented and practised.

Although several prominent linguists and pioneers in the field of second language pedagogy, including Henry Sweet, Harold Palmer and Otto Jespersen, were well aware of the "pull of the mother tongue" (see Sridhar, 1976: 259) in learning a TL, it was Charles C. Fries who firmly established contrastive linguistic analysis as an integral component of the methodology of language teaching (see P. 10). He (1945: 9) declares that:

The most effective materials for 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 learner.

By issuing the charter for modern CA, he made the first move in what has turned out to be one of the most spirited controversies in

the field of foreign language teaching, namely, the role and relevance of CA. As a result, various claims have been made about the potential role of CA in language teaching. Hall (1968) asserts that the era of the uniform, standard textbook for all learners of a TL, irrespective of their language backgrounds, is over; the structure of the textbook, i.e. selection of teaching items, degree of emphasis, kinds of practice drills, nature of exposition, etc., should be geared to the NL of the learner.

Nickel and Wagner (1968) make similar claims about the crucial role of CA in both 'didactic' (selection, grading, and exposition) and 'methodic' (actual classroom presentation) programming. They (253-255) summarize the pedagogical implications of the results obtained from an adequate CA as follows:

1. The function of contrastive comparison in methodic programming is explanatory, i.e. to explain certain aspects of the language to be taught. This may provide the teacher with adequate material and adequate tools of comparison.

2. CA can provide the textbook writer with linguistic principles which include the following points:

- a. Limitation of teaching material: This means the restriction of teaching materials to a certain dialect or register, selected on the basis of their frequency of occurrence, availability, and teachability.

- b. Grading: This means the organization of the material selected. It comprises two aspects; staging and sequencing. By staging, we mean the division of the language course into segments, i.e. more teaching time must be allotted to items of a high degree of difficulty. The second aspect, i.e. sequencing, means the ordering of teaching units.

Phenomena that have been found to be similar or even identical in both languages can be taught at an early stage even if they are very complex; items which differ will come relatively late.

c. Choice of drills and exercises: The results of CA may also be used to decide on the type of exercise or drill to be used in an individual case, or generally on the presentation of the teaching items.

This pedagogical application of contrastive linguistics has been the subject of numerous controversies since the mid-sixties. Despite critical voices, coming particularly from the proponents of EA, a large number of applied linguists and language teachers have found applied contrastive linguistics very useful in language teaching, materials development and the analysis of errors.

The present writer's contention is that CA has considerable pedagogical value in day-to-day teaching in the classroom. As a teacher of English language for more than fifteen years, he has found that the NL of the learner is a very powerful factor in foreign language acquisition and one which, in spite of the great efforts being made to improve English teaching, cannot be eliminated from the process of learning. The writer is referring here to the situation of language teaching in Iraqi schools, which, from a psychological point of view, is completely different from the situation of learning a language in a country where it is spoken or learnt in a very intensive course of total immersion. In these two cases, there will be plenty of opportunities for observation and testing one's detailed hypotheses concerning various aspects of the language.

However, most claims made by proponents of CA in relation to its contribution to foreign/second language teaching have become the focus

of severe criticism. The pendulum has swung to the other extreme, as is characteristic of developments in language teaching methods. Thus, contrastive studies, originally regarded as a panacea for all the problems in language teaching, are now treated by some linguists as of no pedagogical use at all. According to the advocates of EA, contrastive studies can be of only very limited use for language teaching and learning. Strevens (1970) argues that contrastive studies are of no use at all for language teaching because, in the first place, a complete analysis involving two languages is an extremely difficult and painstaking task, and, in the second, all of this is not worth so much effort, as any experienced language teacher knows where errors mostly occur.

There are at least, as Marton points out, two problems lying behind the pessimism and disappointment about the pedagogical application of contrastive studies. These are:

1. Most of the contrastive studies are of a highly theoretical nature, and, as such, not readily applicable to language teaching.
2. In actual learning, errors often occur where they are not expected and do not occur in areas of extreme interference as pinpointed by contrastive studies. (Marton, 1973: 15-25)

This situation engendered a lot of disappointment and distrust towards contrastive studies on the part of language teachers, who began thinking of another, more reliable, approach. This led to the move towards EA.

10.3. Error Analysis and Language Teaching

EA can be viewed as a means of finding a short cut to the analysis of the learner's difficulties in a foreign language. In this regard,

Richards (1974: 1) states that "the learner's errors are indicative both of the state of the learner's knowledge, and of the ways in which a foreign/second language is learned. According to Bhatia (1974: 341) "the errors explain the learner's inability to use appropriate grammatical structures, semantic categories and other linguistic units." It is a well-known fact that lack of acquaintance with EA is often the cause of the language teacher and his students wasting a considerable amount of time before the teacher finally discovers what type of errors his students make; what priorities he should adopt in their correction; and what corrective techniques are the most effective and most appropriate. The teacher's ignorance of EA may sometimes cause him to become concerned with insignificant errors and bypass others that are quite important.

The most important factor that leads linguists to deal with EA rather than with CA is that NL interference cannot be the sole cause of difficulty in foreign/second language learning. CA cannot predict all the errors, and even the unsophisticated teacher who knows no linguistics is conscious of more errors made by his pupils than the ones caused by the interference of their NL. The source of such errors, as stated by Lee (1968: 187), could be false analogy, bad teaching or unsuitable grading of the material to be taught.

Though the usefulness of EA in foreign/second language teaching has been questioned by some language teachers and linguists, proponents of EA believe that it has certain advantages that the teacher cannot entirely overlook. To them, EA is an effective means of discovering the student's major areas of difficulty. Stevens (1965) points out that the systematic analysis of recurrent errors is a fruitful area for further research. By concentrating on the more

obvious points of difficulty, it makes an immediate contribution to the task of language teaching.

The significance of EA in the prediction of learning problems is emphasized by Banathy and Madarasz (1969), who claim that in order to accomplish a more comprehensive, hence more effective, tabulation of learning difficulties, EA is needed. On page 92, the writers say that if EA is properly practised, it can frame the entire area of learning problems, showing simultaneously the learning difficulties arising from the interference of the NL and those pertaining to the structure of the TL.

According to Svartvik (1973), EA could improve the teaching situation in a number of ways. It could, for instance, help us to:

1. set up a hierarchy of difficulties.
2. achieve a realistic ranking of teaching priorities at different levels.
3. objectify principles of grading; preferably in international co-operation.
4. produce suitable teaching materials.
5. revise syllabuses in a non ad hoc manner.
6. construct tests which are relevant to different purposes and levels.
7. decompartmentalize language teaching at different levels, in particular, the school and university levels.

Since the main concern of EA is the errors made by learners, Svartvik goes on to say that it could be of great significance to the following people:

1. the teacher, as errors enable him to undertake a systematic analysis in order to find out how far the learner has progressed and

what remains for him to learn. Besides, a language teacher needs to know in advance, as far as is possible, the type and importance of the errors a particular group of students would be likely to make, the various causes of such errors and the technique of correcting them.

2. the researcher, as errors provide him with evidence of how language is learned and what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in learning the foreign language.

3. the learner, as errors are considered as a device the learner uses in learning the language. They are a means the learner uses to test his hypothesis about the nature of the language he is learning.

The following procedure is considered the representative methodology of EA by the majority of error analysts:

1. collection of data;
2. identification of errors;
3. classification into error types;
4. statement of relative frequency of error types;
5. identification of the areas of difficulty in the TL;
6. analysis of the source of errors;
7. determination of the degree of disturbance caused by the error;
8. therapy, i.e. constructing remedial drills, exercises, lessons, etc.

Research in EA has led to a new move towards error assessment. Through EA, the significance of students' errors is receiving increasing attention. The notion that errors are a sign that the learners have not mastered the rules they have been taught is now giving way to the notion that errors are rather an indication of the difficulties learners encounter in acquiring the TL. This, as mentioned in Chapter One, has led to the evolution of IL studies which

are concerned with learners' deviations from the TL norm.

Methodologically, as stated by Sridhar (1972: 277), IL incorporates the assumptions of both CA and EA. While CA is concerned with the comparison between NL and TL, and EA involves contrasts between the learner's performance and the TL, IL takes all three systems into account, incorporating the CA of the learner's IL with both his NL and the TL.

An important question that arises from research in the field of errors is whether or not to correct errors made by learners while using the TL. As a result, errors are classified into tolerable and intolerable. Tolerable errors are those which do not affect communication whereas the latter kind of errors are those which hinder communication. This is a factor in a recent approach in foreign/second language teaching, namely, the "communicative approach". Communicative pedagogy emphasises the meaningful use of the TL systems and structures as a way of communicating with other people; all other language teaching problems appear to be secondary to that central issue. Communication, therefore, should be the most significant factor in methods of teaching English. No one can deny the joy a foreign language teacher feels when hearing his students speak the language flawlessly. But constant correction of errors by the teacher often results in loss of confidence on the part of the learner, especially when correction takes place in public, as in the classroom. Limiting the correction to those errors that affect communication allows the student to build up enough confidence and enthusiasm to continue learning the language. Burt (1975) suggests that teachers can perform this type of "communicative error analysis" in their classrooms while hearing or recording their students' speech. A teacher can use his own

judgement to select those errors that make the most difference to comprehensibility. Such efforts comprise an important step towards producing more relevant teaching, more confident learners, and more effective communication.

10.4. The Utility of Contrastive/Error Analyses in Pedagogy

Though the contribution of each approach to language teaching is questioned and criticized, the present writer believes that if both CA and EA are carried out at the same time in any research, they will lead to invaluable results. The two approaches are both needed for the explanation of problems in the field of foreign/second language teaching and learning. We have found that EA tests the contrastive prediction and extends its pedagogical applications. The pedagogical use of contrastive studies, however, is still essential because, complemented by EA, it explains and systematizes our teaching experience. EA in itself shows only what types of error occur, not why they occur. Thus, when we have data provided by EA, we are still in need of their linguistic interpretation.

Despite the fact that the new theoretical orientation has not yet developed a rigorous methodological apparatus comparable to that of CA, it is appropriate, the writer believes, to make use of both approaches when dealing with the most important task of this work, i.e. the teaching of English prepositions of place relation to Iraqi students.

10.5. Previous Approaches to Teaching English

Prepositions

All the following approaches, summarised in approximately chronological order, have been suggested as ways of facilitating the use of English prepositions. It is hoped that such approaches will be of help to teachers and curriculum specialists in dealing with these problematic words.

10.5.1. Kreidler's 'Association' Approach

Kreidler (1966) suggests that, since meaning is not a reliable guide in the choice of prepositions, learners should be taught to select prepositions through association between a preposition and the type of word or phrase that precedes or follows it. He sorted 200 verbs into twenty-four patterns according to the prepositions that follow them, e.g.

— somebody about something /advise/ ask/caution/consult/, etc.

— with somebody about something /disagree/argue/confer/differ/, etc.

— with somebody for something /bargain/compete/plead/intercede/, etc.

(See Kreidler 1966: 121-122)

10.5.2. Hornby's 'Unit' Method

Hornby (1966) similarly emphasizes the learning of prepositions through their combinations with various nouns, verbs and participles. He presents exhaustive lists of patterns in which prepositions occur, and points out that when a verb is closely linked with a preposition, the verb and preposition must be learned as a unit. He gives this example of linkage: You can rely upon that man/his discretion/his being discreet.

He concludes that choosing the proper preposition will be simple when the learner has become familiar with the various combinations of nouns, verbs, and prepositions through hearing and seeing them repeatedly in various contexts.

10.5.3. Close's 'Relationship' Approach

Close (1967) suggests that prepositions should be taught first as representing relationships in space, that they should be seen as precise expressions of position or movement in a certain direction. This, he proposes, should be accomplished through illustrations and action. Next, he remarks, they should be studied as expressions of time and, finally, as relationships of a more abstract kind. In this way, he concludes they will be found to have clear meanings and to fit into some kind of system. Through this, Close claims, the student "must therefore take note of how prepositions are used in context and must imitate the same kind of usage himself". (Close, 1967: 3-15)

10.5.4. Pittman's 'Demonstrable' Uses

Like Close, Pittman (1966) emphasizes that classroom situations, where prepositions and prepositional phrases can be used and practised in visual contexts, should be provided first. Consider the following examples given by the author to demonstrate the uses of the preposition at under several categories.

1. at (a point in space)

He is at the door.

the window.

the table.

the entrance.

2. at (a part of the body)

It is at your feet.

your side.

your heels.

3. at (a point in time)

It arrives at 5:13.

He came at once.

4. at (a line)

He is at the wall.

the fence.

the seaside.

5. at (a position)

They are at the front (of the queue).

the rear (of the queue).

6. at (an angle)

It is at an angle.

It was at an angle of 90°.

Next, the teacher should approach the non-demonstrable uses of prepositions through simpler demonstrable ones. The following examples are taken from the uses of the preposition in, following the principle of one semantic variety at a time:

1. Say it in English.

French.

German.

Spanish.

2. They are in a crowd.

a group.

a cluster.

3. I would do it in my spare time.

my working hours.

the holidays.

As a result, links between the physical and abstract uses of prepositions will be easily acquired by the students:

He walked in the fields/hail.

. meadows/heat.

. park/rain.

woods/snow.

. forest/sleet.

(See Pittman, 1966: 1-3)

10.5.5. Langendoen's 'Role-Subdivisions'

Langendoen (1970) remarks that the choice of a preposition mainly depends on the nominal expression following it. Thus, he correlates English prepositions with the roles played by the nominals that follow them. The preposition from, for example, typically introduces the source, with very often introduces the instrument. But there remains the problem of the same role being conveyed by different prepositions and, at the same time, the same preposition denoting different roles. To solve this problem, Langendoen, taking Fillmore's case grammar into consideration, suggests that those roles have to be subdivided. The role "location", for example, can be subdivided into "location in", "location at", and "location by". In the same way, the role "movement" may be divided into "movement from", "movement around", and "movement through". The following three examples are given by the writer to clarify his view:

1. I live in Pennsylvania.

2. I live on the east side of town.

3. I live at 77 Massachusetts Avenue.

In the above three sentences, the choice of the prepositions in, on, and at has nothing to do with the verb "live", but rather with what the following nominal expression designates. He concludes that learning these prepositions depends on understanding the roles with their subdivisions and associating the role with a particular preposition. (See Langendoen, 1970: 87)

10.5.6. Buckingham's 'Remedial' Approach

Buckingham (1975) suggests different ways to overcome the variety of problems students face in the use of English prepositions. These problems are classified into two major categories: omission and the wrong selection of prepositions. The following remedial approach is proposed by the writer (P. 111) to help students overcome the first problem:

1. Develop in the students a "set" to hear prepositions. The teacher asks the students to concentrate on prepositions while reading very simple, short paragraphs in which a few prepositions occur a number of times. Each time, the students hear a preposition, they have to do something active to indicate that they have heard it.

2. Give the students dictation passages to study that contain a limited number of prepositions. The teacher might ask the students to do the following things to prepare the passage:

- a. underline or write down each preposition and its object.
- b. practise the spelling and pronunciation of each preposition.
- c. say each sentence aloud without looking at the passage.
- d. try to write down the sentence from memory.

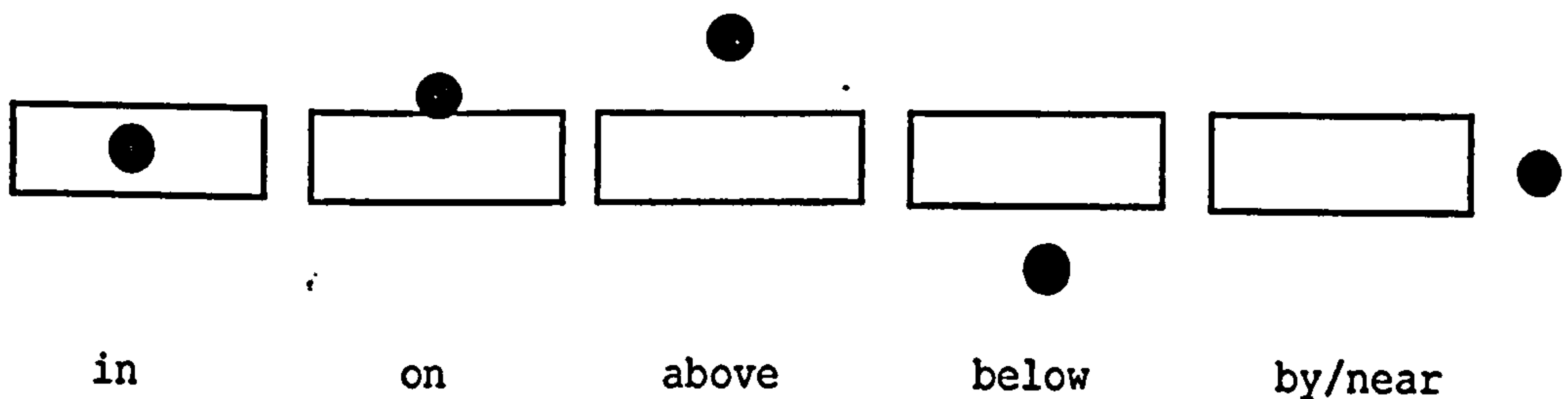
3. Lead the students to expect prepositions to occur with their

noun objects, i.e. use prepositional phrases as response units.

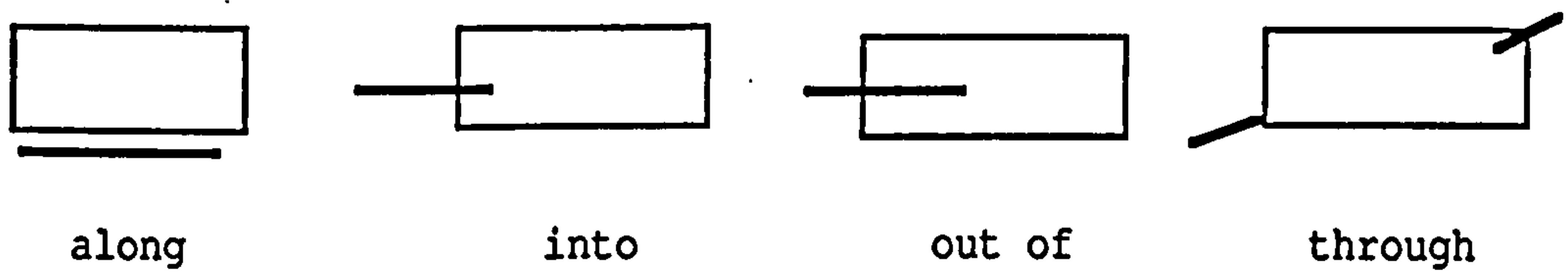
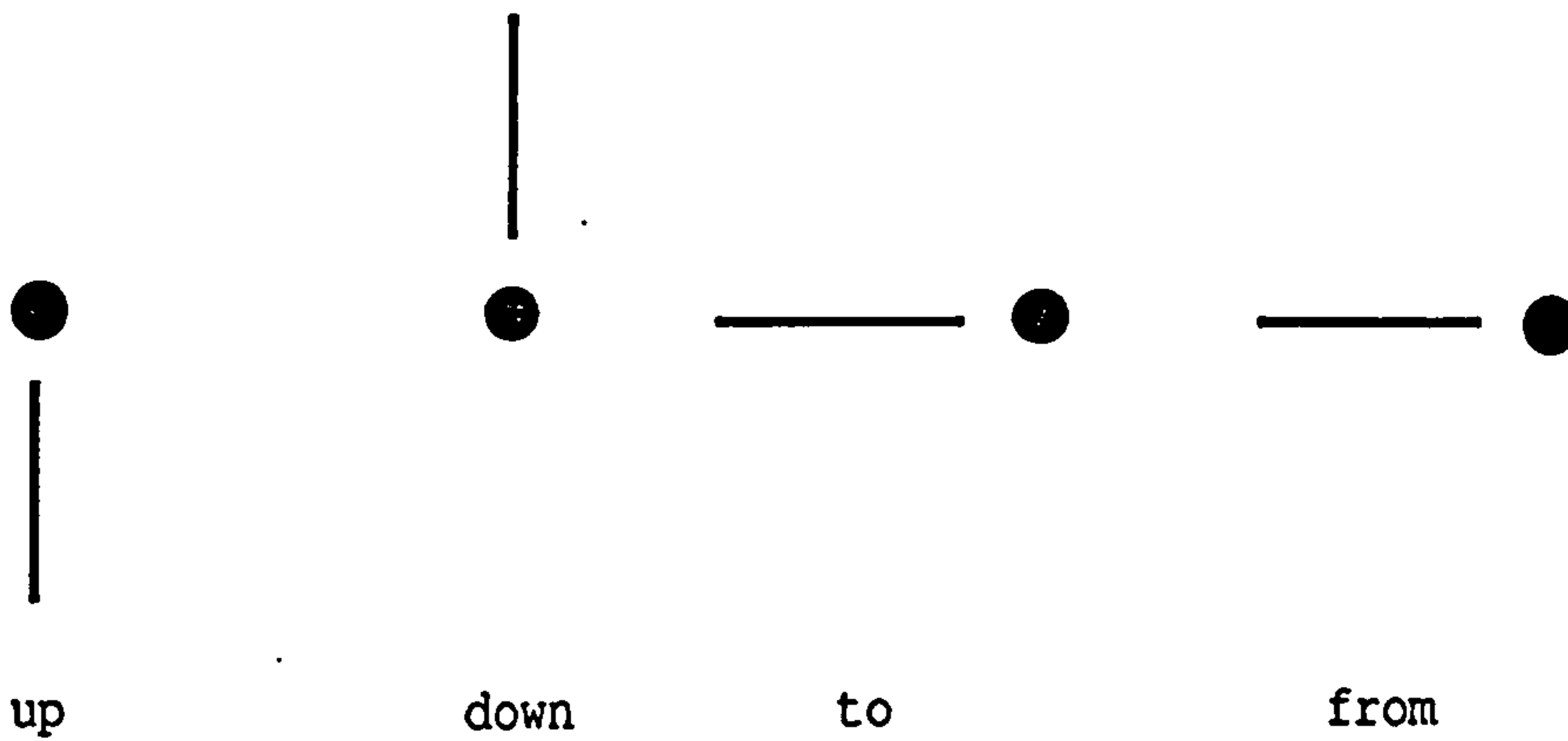
4. Play a game in which you let students practise prepositions.

5. Use the "cloze" technique to provide students with an opportunity to enter creatively into the learning process. The cloze technique provides a sentence frame with a blank to be filled by the proper preposition.

As for the wrong selection of prepositions, Buckingham suggests different visual devices to help students remember the basic meanings of prepositions more easily. For location prepositions, he suggests the use of a box and a dot. The following are some examples:



For directional prepositions, an arrow and a dot or box serve fairly well. Here are some common prepositions:



These visual devices will yield fruitful results if they are accompanied by substitution drills to reinforce the proper use of prepositions. The following is an example:

— ● the store

The boys walked to the store.

— □ the room

The boys walked into the room.

□ the park

The boys walked through the park.

● the hospital

The boys walked around the hospital.

● the school

The boys walked by the school.

the stairs

The boys walked up the stairs.

== the beach

The boys walked along the beach.

10.5.7. Zughoul's Approach

Zughoul (1979) criticizes previous approaches because they, as he claims (P. 28), do not provide practice in real communication. According to him, prepositions are taught not because the students need them in order to communicate their thoughts, but because a group of them happen to cluster together in a particular taxonomic description. Therefore, the writer opposes the idea of introducing more than one preposition at a time because this, as he states (ibid), "causes confusion and results in the student's inability to use them correctly in tests of grammatical accuracy". The crucial role of

communication in foreign/second language learning leads him to suggest the following: (a) Teachers of English should begin with situations that are as real and relevant to the students as possible; and (b) they should discover which prepositions the students need in order to communicate effectively, that is, to make themselves understood correctly.

The following are some of the examples suggested by Zughoul to be practised by a teacher in a classroom:

Go to the blackboard.

Sit behind Samir.

Sit in front of Samir.

I 'll see you at lunch.

Put your books under your seats.

Put your books on your desks. (See Zughoul, 1979: 28-40)

In most of the approaches presented, there is an apparent ignorance of two important factors which intervene in learning English prepositions. These two factors are: (a) MT interference and (b) overlapping of English prepositions. This encourages the present writer to introduce his suggestions, which are informed by these two factors, in an attempt to overcome some of the difficulties Iraqi/Arab learners of English face.

10.5.8. The Writer's Suggestions

Despite the fact that no one should expect to find a teaching technique or method which is sufficient in itself to eliminate all the errors committed by foreign/second language learners when dealing with a specific linguistic area, the present writer feels it incumbent on

him to present some suggestions about the teaching of English prepositions of place relation. These suggestions, based on the results obtained from CA and EA, take account of contrasts and overlapping among prepositions of place relation within the English language itself as well as of contrasts between English and Arabic. They should not be regarded as a complete approach to teaching English prepositions to Iraqi/Arab learners of English. They are only an attempt to give teachers of English and curriculum specialists in the Arab World some information about the difficulties their students face when dealing with this linguistic area.

The prepositions concerned are organized into pairs or groups according to either their semantic or their orthographic relations, the two factors that cause the students' confusion about the correct choice of prepositions. This, contrary to Zughouli's belief mentioned above, will enable students to concentrate on two or more prepositions at one time and distinguish their meanings. Moreover, the Arabic prepositions are presented as a warning signal to students of the errors which they might commit when thinking of their NL. Visual devices and drills should be designed by the textbook writer and the teacher whenever they feel that they might be of any help to their students in remembering the contrast or relation among prepositions within the same group.

Owing to the many problems that learners face in using English prepositions, the presentation of these problematic words should be carried out in three stages. Simple contrasts between pairs of prepositions should be presented first, since they are easy to perceive. All the examples in the exercises suggested (Appendix D) are of this type. The second stage includes the areas of difficulty which

are expected to arise due to MT interference. At the third stage, overlapping among prepositions is presented, because the learners have become advanced enough to acquire such complexities.

The prepositions and problems associated with them will now be presented in alphabetical order, making reference to the analyses presented in Chapters Seven and Eight.

10.5.8.1. Aboard; On

These two prepositions have to be presented together to draw the students' attention to the semantic difference between them. The difficulty, i.e. the use of on instead of aboard, revealed by CA (see 7.2.1.), was confirmed by EA (see tables 34, 89, and 128). The cause of this difficulty is MT interference, since the preposition aboard has no direct equivalent in Arabic and the Arabic preposition /9alaa/ (on) is normally used to indicate this sense. Therefore, a teacher has to point out the difference in meaning and emphasise the use of aboard. He also has to introduce the MT by stating that aboard means /9alaa fahr/ (on board) and not /9alaa/ (on) alone.

Finally, the word "abroad" should be presented here as a warning, since it has an orthographic similarity with the preposition aboard. The same tables above show that the word "abroad" was used by many examinees instead of aboard.

10.5.8.2. About; (A)round

There are two reasons for presenting these prepositions together. First, the Arabic preposition /hawla/hawaali/, which is considered as a direct equivalent of the above two prepositions, cannot denote all the senses denoted by them. Second, though the two English

prepositions are interchangeable in denoting certain spatial senses (see 4.3.2.), the use of one instead of the other causes some errors. Therefore, a teacher should concentrate on the senses that cannot be denoted by the Arabic prepositions /hawla/ and /hawaali/ as revealed by CA (see 7.2.2.). These senses caused most of the errors made by the testees in tables 45, 118, 138. Senses that can be denoted by one English preposition, but not by the other, should also be concentrated on, in order to let the students know where the two prepositions are not interchangeable.

10.5.8.3. Above; Below

These prepositions are introduced together owing to the semantic relation of opposition between them. The contrast between above and below should be easy for Arab learners of English to acquire since their Arabic counterparts, /fawqa/ and /tahta/, are used to indicate the same contrast.

10.5.8.4. Above; Over

These two prepositions are presented together because of the confusion Iraqi/Arab learners of English may face in choosing between them. In Arabic, there is only one preposition, namely /fawqa/, which represents the meaning of both English prepositions. Though /fawqa/ is considered as a direct equivalent of the above two prepositions, CA revealed that it cannot be used in Arabic to convey all the senses denoted by the two English prepositions (see 7.2.3. and 7.2.41.).

Overlapping between these two prepositions is the second cause of the students' confusion. EA showed that the most frequent error committed by the students was the use of one preposition rather than

the other (see tables 51, 56, 77 and 97).

A teacher should therefore point out three things: first, the difference in meaning between above and over; second, the senses that cannot be represented by the Arabic preposition /fawqa/; third, the contexts where the two English prepositions are not interchangeable.

10.5.8.5. Across; Over

Overlapping is the main factor behind the presentation of these two prepositions together. EA revealed that Iraqi students were confused when dealing with certain senses denoted by either across or over, i.e. the use of either across instead of over or vice versa (see tables 114, and 119). A teacher, therefore, should concentrate on the concepts where the two prepositions, across and over, are not interchangeable (see 4.3.4.).

The two Arabic prepositions, /ʔabra/ (across) and /fawqa/ (over, above), should be presented together with the two English prepositions mentioned above. Though these two Arabic prepositions, /ʔabra/ and /fawqa/, are considered as direct equivalents of across and over respectively, there are some senses denoted by the English prepositions that cannot be indicated by their Arabic counterparts (see 7.2.4. and 7.2.41.). These senses should be concentrated on in order to help the students overcome the difficulty they will face when dealing with such senses.

10.5.8.6. Across; Along

The two prepositions above are presented together because of the semantic relation between them. It is supposed that Arab learners will easily acquire this since the direct Arabic equivalents, /tuula/ʔalaa

tuuli/ and /9abra/, indicate the same contrast. They are also easy to demonstrate in the classroom (see Appendix C).

10.5.8.7. Across; Through

These two prepositions are presented together because of overlapping and M1 interference. Though the above two prepositions are sometimes interchangeable in denoting the sense "a movement from one side to another", the use of one instead of the other in denoting other senses is not acceptable in English (see 4.3.5.). As Tables 40, 54, 117 and 151 show, the most frequent error committed by the examinees is either the use of through instead of across or vice versa. CA also reveals that most of the senses denoted by across and through cannot be conveyed by their Arabic counterparts /9abra/ and /xilaala/min xilaali/ (see 7.2.4. and 7.2.43.). A teacher should therefore concentrate on the senses where the prepositions are not interchangeable and the senses that cannot be denoted by their Arabic counterparts. Furthermore, the verb "cross" should be presented as a warning alongside the preposition across since they share some semantic and orthographic similarity.

10.5.8.8. After; Before

CA also justifies the presentation of these two prepositions together. A teacher of English has to mention that before and after, like the Arabic prepositions /qabla/ and /ba9da/, are used spatially to indicate the order of things horizontally and vertically (see 7.2.5. and 7.2.16.).

10.5.8.9. After; Behind

In English, though the two prepositions behind and after are interchangeable in certain contexts, the use of one instead of the other is sometimes not acceptable (see 3.4.10.); second, the two Arabic prepositions /waraa?a/ and /xalfa/, which are considered as direct equivalents of behind and after respectively, are interchangeable in all contexts (see 6.3.4.). These two factors cause confusion among the students.

10.5.8.10. Against; On

Because of the results obtained from CA, these two prepositions are presented together. The two Arabic prepositions /9aks/ and /did/, considered as the literal translation of the English preposition against, cannot denote most of the spatial senses indicated by against (see 7.2.6.), Arab students, as tables 37 and 38 show, used the preposition on, the literal translation of /9alaa/, which is used to denote the senses of across and through in Arabic. A teacher should concentrate on the spatial senses denoted by against in order to help his students overcome the problems arising from MT interference, i.e. the use of on instead of against.

10.5.8.11. Ahead of; Before; In front of; Facing; Opposite

These prepositions are introduced together because of overlapping and MT interference. Though they are sometimes interchangeable in denoting certain senses, the use of one instead the other in certain contexts is unacceptable in English (see 4.3.9. and 4.3.15.). This will cause student confusion. A further source of confusion is the students' MT. Though the preposition /?amaama/ can be used in Arabic

to denote all the senses indicated by all the above prepositions, the prepositions /muqaabila/, /qubaalata/ and /quddaama/ have to be introduced as direct equivalents of the prepositions facing, and opposite. The teacher's task here is threefold. First, he has to concentrate on the use of ahead of and facing, since the first has no direct equivalent in Arabic and the second is rarely used in English and hardly known as another translation of the Arabic preposition /muqaabila/. This will help the learners overcome the problem of avoidance revealed by CA (see 7.2.7. and 7.2.25.). Second, he has to mention that the preposition /qabla/, which is considered as a direct equivalent of the English preposition before, cannot denote its spatial sense (in the presence of). Third, the preposition /?amaama/ should be introduced as the direct equivalent of the prepositions in front of, before, and ahead of, and the preposition /muqaabila/ as the direct equivalent of facing and opposite.

10.5.8.12. Along; Alongside

These two prepositions are introduced together because they have an orthographic relationship which causes confusion (see table 103). A teacher should point out the difference in meaning and, at the same time, introduce the two Arabic prepositions /tuula/9alaa tuuli/ and /bimuhaataati/ as the appropriate equivalents of along and alongside respectively. If the students know this fact, they may not commit the errors seen in tables 103 and 134. Moreover, the two Arabic prepositions /tuula/ and /9alaa tuuli/ cannot denote all the senses denoted by the English preposition along (see 7.2.8.). This is the main cause of the errors committed by the examinees in tables 42, 81, 112, 128 and 132. Such senses, therefore, have to be stressed.

10.5.8.13. Among; Between

In Arabic, the preposition /bayna/ represents the meaning of the two English prepositions (see 7.2.11. and 7.2.21.); there is also a sort of overlapping between them (see 4.3.6.). These two factors cause confusion about the choice of either between or among, particularly when the object following the preposition is more than two persons or things. EA revealed that the use of one preposition instead of the other was the most frequent error made by the examinees (see tables 88 and 98).

10.5.8.14. (A)round; Through

These two prepositions have a semantic relationship akin to opposition. The contrast between (a)round and through is easy for Arab learners since their Arabic counterparts /hawla/ and /xilaala/min xilaali/ indicate the same contrast. They are easy to demonstrate in a classroom (see Appendix C).

10.5.8.15. At; In

These two prepositions are presented together because of overlapping and MT interference. These two factors are behind the errors made by the examinees in Tables 41, 95, 108, 116, 139, 147 and 166. It is worth mentioning that the preposition at has been revealed by CA and EA to be the most problematic spatial preposition for Iraqi/Arab learners of English. The preposition /9inda/, which is considered as its appropriate equivalent, cannot denote all its senses (see 7.2.14.); moreover, the preposition /9inda/ is not commonly used in Arabic to denote spatial senses. A teacher, therefore, has to concentrate on those senses that cannot be indicated by the Arabic

preposition /9inda/.

10.5.8.16. Behind; In front of

These two prepositions are introduced together since they are direct opposites in meaning. It is to be presumed that Arab learners of English will find no difficulty in acquiring them because their Arabic counterparts, /ʔamaama/ and /waraaʔa/xalfa/, can be used to denote the same contrast. Their demonstration in a classroom can be easily carried out (see appendix C).

10.5.8.17. Below; Beneath; Under; Underneath

This group is presented together for two reasons: MT interference and overlapping. In Arabic, the preposition /tahta/ is used to convey the meanings denoted by all four English prepositions (see 7.2.18, 19, 47, 49). Second, though any one of the four prepositions can sometimes be used to denote certain senses, the use of one instead of the other will bring about problems (see 4.3.11). Thus, Arab students may be confused about whether to use this or that preposition. This confusion was predicted by CA (see 7.2.18) and EA (see table 52). A teacher, therefore, should concentrate on the senses where the prepositions are not interchangeable.

10.5.8.18. Beside; Next (to)

The reason for presenting these two prepositions together is, once again, MT interference and overlapping. The semantic difference between the two prepositions beside and next (to) (see 4.3.12.), does not exist in Arabic because the preposition next (to) has no direct Arabic equivalent. To convey the same idea in Arabic, the word

/mubaaʃaratan/ (immediately) should be added after the Arabic preposition /janla/bijaanibi/ (beside) (see 7.2.20.). A teacher, therefore, has to point out the difference in meaning and at the same time concentrate on the use of next (to).

10.5.8.19. Beyond; Past

The two reasons behind introducing these two prepositions together are again overlapping and MT interference. Though the above two prepositions are interchangeable in denoting the sense "on the farther side of", only the preposition past is used to convey the idea of "passing by someone or something" (see 4.3.13.). CA revealed that Arab learners of English tend to avoid using these two prepositions because they have no direct equivalents in Arabic. To indicate the meaning "on the farther side of" and "pass by" in Arabic, the two constructions /ʔab9adu min/ (far from) and /marra bi/ (pass in) are used (see 7.2.22 and 7.2.42). Thus, a teacher has to concentrate on the use of these prepositions in order to help his students use them when using the English language. The verb "pass" should be presented as a warning alongside the preposition past since they share some semantic and orthographic similarity which caused the testees' confusion.

10.5.8.20. By; Near

These two prepositions are presented together because of MT interference and overlapping. The semantic difference between by and near in English (see 4.3.13.) does not exist in Arabic, owing to the fact that the preposition by has no direct equivalent in Arabic (see 7.2.23.). The preposition /qurba/ is used in Arabic to denote the senses indicated by the two prepositions near and by. A teacher,

therefore, has to stress the difference in meaning between these two prepositions as well as concentrate on the use of by in order to help his students overcome the problem of avoidance of this preposition (see 7.2.23.).

10.5.8.21. Down; Up

These two prepositions are presented together since they are direct opposites. Apart from the problem of addition revealed by CA (see 7.2.24. and 7.2.49.) and confirmed by EA (see tables 162 and 167), it will be easy for Arab learners of English to acquire the correct use of up and down since, in their MT, their direct Arabic equivalents, /ʔasfala/ʔilaa ʔasfali/ and /ʔa9laa/ʔilaa ʔa9laa/, indicate the same contrast. This contrast can be easily demonstrated by a teacher in a classroom (see appendix C). The only fact that has to be mentioned by the teacher is that the English prepositions up and down are the counterparts of /ʔa9laa/ʔilaa ʔa9laa/ and /ʔasfala/ʔilaa ʔasfali/ and not /ʔa9laa/ and /ʔasfala/ alone. This will help the learners overcome the problem of addition, i.e. the use of the preposition to before up and down to form compound prepositions similar to the Arabic ones, /ʔilaa ʔa9laa/ and /ʔilaa asfali/.

10.5.8.22. For; To

MT interference and overlapping are the two factors behind presenting these two prepositions together. Though the prepositions to and for are used to indicate destination, the use of the preposition for is restricted to certain verbs (see 4.3.17.). CA shows that Arab students tend to use the preposition to in all cases (see 7.2.26.). The reason behind this is that, though Arabic has the preposition

/laam/ as the counterpart of for and /ʔilaa/ as the equivalent of to, there are no restrictions at all on using one preposition instead of the other. This fact was confirmed by EA, as tables 28, 104 and 145 show that the most frequent error made by the examinees was the use of to instead of for. A teacher, therefore, has to concentrate on the use of for to help his students overcome the problem of using to instead.

10.5.8.23. From; Off

MT interference is the only factor behind the suggestion of introducing these two prepositions together. Since there is no direct equivalent of the preposition off in Arabic, the students tend to use the preposition from, the literal translation of the Arabic preposition /min/, which is used to denote the senses indicated by the preposition off. This problem has been revealed by CA (see 7.2.35.) and confirmed by JA (see tables 107 and 156). The teacher's task here is threefold: first, he has to point out the semantic difference in meaning between the two prepositions, from and off; second, he has to concentrate on the use of off in order to help his students overcome the difficulty of using from instead; third, he has to mention that the Arabic translation of the preposition off is either /min 9alaa/ or /min fawqi/ but not /min/ alone. This will prevent the students from committing the error of addition revealed by CA (see P. 276).

10.5.8.24. From; To

These two prepositions are presented together since they are direct opposites. It was revealed by CA (see 7.2.27. and 7.2.45.) that Arab learners of English have no difficulty in acquiring the correct use of these prepositions since in their MT their direct equivalents

/min/ and /ʔilaa/ indicate the same contrast.

10.5.8.25. From; Out of

The reason behind introducing these two prepositions together is MT interference. CA suggests that Arab learners of English will tend to use the preposition from, the literal translation of the Arabic preposition /min/, instead of out of in denoting all its spatial senses (see 7.2.37.). The cause of this is that the preposition out of has no direct equivalent in Arabic and, thus, all its senses can be denoted in Arabic by the preposition /min/. Tables 91 and 157 show that the most frequent error made by the examinees was the use of from instead of out of. A teacher therefore has to do two things: firstly, the use of out of should be concentrated on in order to help the learners overcome the difficulty of using from instead; secondly, the Arabic compound preposition /li/ʔilaa xaaariji/ should be introduced as the appropriate counterpart to the English preposition out of.

10.5.8.26. In; Inside

MT interference revealed by CA (see 7.2.30.) and overlapping between these two prepositions (see 4.3.18.) are the two factors behind the suggestion of introducing in and inside together. Table 97 shows that the most frequent error made by the examinees was the use of the preposition inside instead of in. Arab learners of English, influenced by their MT, find it difficult to recognise the difference between these two prepositions as such a difference does not exist between /fii/ and /daaxila/fii daaxili/, the literal translations of in and inside respectively. The only fact that a teacher has to mention is that the preposition inside should not be used unless the

noun following it has sides.

10.5.8.27. In; On

These two prepositions have to be presented together since both of them indicate two related locations. The same difference exists between their Arabic counterparts /fii/ and /9alaa/ respectively. However, CA has revealed that some of the senses denoted by the English preposition on are denoted by the Arabic preposition /fii/, the literal translation of the English preposition in. This is the cause of the errors committed by the examinees in Tables 43, 73, 94, and 111. A teacher of English, therefore, has to note these instances in order to help his students overcome the difficulty of using in instead of on.

10.5.8.28. Inside; Outside

The above two prepositions should be presented together as they are direct opposites. These two prepositions should be easy for Arab learners to acquire because, in Arabic, the use of their direct equivalents /daaxila/ and /xaarija/ indicates the same difference. This contrast can be easily demonstrated in the classroom (see Appendix C).

10.5.8.29. In; Into

Overlapping between these two prepositions (see 4.3.19.) and MT interference as revealed by CA (see 7.2.31.) are behind introducing in and into together. These two factors cause confusion about which preposition to use. Tables 82 and 96 show that the most frequent error was the use of in instead of into. A teacher therefore has to

concentrate on the use of into and restrict the use of this preposition to verbs of movement.

10.5.8.30. Into; Out of

These two prepositions can be tackled together since they are direct opposites. Acquiring the correct use of either preposition alone is difficult for Arab students since neither English preposition has a direct equivalent in Arabic. Therefore, a teacher has to demonstrate the contrast between them (see appendix C) in order to help his students overcome the problem of avoidance.

10.5.8.31. Next (to); Opposite

These two prepositions are presented together because they are semantically related and can be easily demonstrated by the teacher in the classroom (see appendix C). Through this demonstration, the students can easily acquire the use of both prepositions despite the fact that the preposition next (to) has no direct equivalent in Arabic.

10.5.8.32. Of; Off

These two prepositions are introduced together because of their orthographic similarity. Tables 107 and 156 show that the most frequent error made by the examinees was the use of the preposition of instead of off. The task of the teacher here is to point out the difference in meaning between the two prepositions.

10.5.8.33. Off; Onto

These two prepositions are presented together as they are direct

opposites. It is presumed that acquiring the use of these two prepositions as a pair (see appendix C) is much easier than acquiring the use of each preposition separately because both prepositions, onto and off, have no direct equivalents in Arabic.

10.5.8.34. On; Onto

Due to overlapping between these two prepositions, Arab learners may be confused about whether to use on or onto because they are interchangeable in certain contexts (see 4.3.21.). Furthermore, in Arabic, there is no direct equivalent of the preposition onto. To denote all the senses denoted by the English preposition onto in Arabic, the Arabic preposition /9alaa/ (on) is used (see 7.2.37.). Thus, the most frequent error made by the examinees (see Tables 48, 86, and 146) was the use of on instead of onto. A teacher of English, therefore, has to concentrate on the use of onto and at the same time, restrict its use to verbs of movement in order to help his students overcome the problem of using on instead.

10.5.8.35. Over; Under

These two prepositions are presented together since they are direct opposites. Acquiring the use of these prepositions is easy for Arab learners of English since their Arabic counterparts /fawqa/ and /tahta/ indicate the same contrast. Their demonstration in a classroom can be easily carried out (see appendix C).

10.5.8.36. To; Towards

Overlapping between these two prepositions is the only factor behind introducing them together. Though they are sometimes

interchangeable in denoting the idea of movement, there is a semantic difference between them (see 4.3.22.). A teacher of English, therefore, has to point out this difference and present the two Arabic prepositions /ʔiiaa/ and /naḥwa/ as direct equivalents of to and towards, since the use of one instead of the other in Arabic indicates the same semantic difference. Students should be advised initially to restrict the use of towards to progressive verbs to indicate that a movement has not been completed.

10.5.8.37. Through; Throughout

There are two reasons behind introducing these two prepositions together, namely, orthographic similarity and MT interference. Table 121 shows that 6) students out of 310 used the preposition through instead of throughout and in Table 126, 51 examinees out of 310 used throughout instead of through. To help his students overcome such a difficulty, a teacher has to point out the difference in meaning between the two prepositions and at the same time concentrate on the use of throughout since it has no direct equivalent in Arabic. To convey the same meaning in Arabic, the construction /fii/9alaa kaaffati ʔanhaaʔi/ is used (see 7.2.44.).

With respect to the preposition through, CA revealed that most of the senses denoted by this preposition cannot be indicated by the preposition /xila:la/, which is considered as the direct equivalent of the English preposition through. A teacher, therefore, has to concentrate on all the senses denoted by through which cannot be denoted by /xilaala/ in order to help the learners overcome the errors revealed in Tables 40, 110, 126, 148, 150 and 160. The teacher also has to introduce the Arabic equivalent of the English preposition

through as /xilaala/ and /min xilaali/ rather than /xilaala/ alone. This will help the students to overcome the problem of addition, i.e. adding the preposition from before through to form a compound preposition similar to the Arabic one /min xilaali/ (see 7.2.43. and Table 148).

Most of the English prepositions of place relation have been introduced as groups owing to the semantic and orthographic relations among them. The Arabic language is introduced whenever the the writer finds it beneficial in solving the problems Arab learners of English face. The use of the MT of the learners should not be considered as a reprehensible action, as is the case in Iraq, when carefully introduced by a teacher in the classroom. On the contrary, it should be introduced alongside the TL whenever the teacher finds it helpful in overcoming some of the problems. Positive as well as negative transfer of the MT plays an important role in learning the TL and, thus, a teacher should exploit both languages. Positive transfer should be concentrated on since it helps the learner acquire the correct use of the TL. If the transfer is negative, a teacher should present it as a warning in order to help his students overcome interlingual errors.

It is the task of the teachers and curriculum specialists to choose from the pairs presented above those that suit their students in terms of their level of study and their need to communicate in the TL.

Finally, the writer thinks it valuable, especially for textbook

writers, to present samples of exercises which deal with simple contrasts among English prepositions of place relation. These exercises, introduced in the appendix, include only nine pairs of prepositions and only two or three exercises on each pair, but they will give a general idea of how to approach the subject. Each exercise contains five to six sentences accompanied by different drills and pictures to show the learners the difference in meaning between the two prepositions introduced. It is suggested that these exercises will suit the primary level since they are easy to demonstrate in the classroom and, thus, are easy for the pupils to acquire. However, since the main intention behind these kinds of exercises is to offer broad outlines to teachers of English and curriculum specialists about the way prepositions should be presented, particularly for beginners, such people are free to choose whatever kind of exercise, vocabulary and number of sentences they find suitable for their students. More difficult exercises which cover MT interference and overlapping, should be introduced at more advanced levels where a higher level of knowledge is needed.

10.6. Prepositions of Place Relation Used in the English Course For Iraq

Now that the previous approaches and the writer's suggestions for teaching English prepositions have been introduced, it is necessary to see how these problematic words are presented in the English Course for Iraq (ECFI). The contrast between what has been said and suggested by many researchers and the way English prepositions are dealt with in the ECFI will clearly show how indifferently these words have been presented to Iraqi learners.

The ECFI consists of eight books: books 1 and 2 are for the primary level; books 3, 4 and 5 are for the intermediate level and

books 6, 7 and 8 are for the secondary level. The course begins at the Fifth Primary level and ends at the Sixth Secondary level. English subjects taught in departments of English at the Colleges of Arts, Colleges of Education and Teachers' Institutes in Iraq, have been introduced in Chapter 8 (see Tables 20, 21 and 22).

Generally, every unit in each book contains: (1) oral practice, (2) pronunciation, (3) a reading text, (4) an exercise in writing and (5) written homework. A unit from each book is included in the appendix (see appendix E) to give the reader a general idea about the ECEI.

The main purpose of this section is to show at what point in the course each preposition is introduced and how much emphasis it receives at each stage and in each book. A look at the following table will show the way English prepositions of place relation are taught to Iraqi learners of English.

Book	preposition	No. of drills and No. of sentences			
		exercises			
1	in	16	87		
	on	6	43		
	in/cn	4	22		
	from	2	15		
2	in	14	86		
	on	3	19		
	in front of/behind	2	13		
	before/after	2	11		
	in/into	1	7		
	in/into/on	1	8		
	from	1	10		
	on/under	1	6		

(to be continued.....)

Book	preposition	No. of drills and No. of sentences exercises	
3	in/on	5	32
	through/round	3	19
	in	2	15
	inside/outside	2	13
	in front of/behind	2	11
	behind/in front of/ between	1	6
	behind	1	7
	before/after	1	5
	between/among	1	5
	by/to/near/down	1	5
	between/among/over	1	6
	past	1	5
	under	1	6
	above	1	6
	across	1	5
	inside/outside	1	5
	under/above/across	1	5
	inside/outside		
	by/near/down	1	6
4	between/among	1	6
	in	1	8
	behind/beside/ in front of	1	7
5	over/under	1	7
	round/through	1	6
	in/on	1	6
	into/to	1	6
6	out of	1	8
	round/to/about/of	1	8
	in/with/from/on		

(to be continued.....)

Book	preposition	No. of drills and exercises	No. of sentences
	in/at/to/for/near/ with/of/from/after	1	9
7	--	none	
8	for/in/with/at/ into/on	1	9

To show the number of exercises and drills devoted to each English preposition of place relation in every book in the ECFL, the following table, arranged alphabetically, is presented.

preposition | No. of drills and exercises | No. of sentences | Book

aboard	none	none	-
about	none	1	5
above	1	6	3
across	2	13	2 & 3
after	none	none	
against	none	none	
ahead of	none	none	
along	none	none	
alongside	none	none	
amid(st)	none	none	

(to be continued...)

preposition	No. of drills and exercises	No. of sentences	Book
among	3	11	3 & 4
(a)round	5	13	3, 4 & 5
astride	none	none	-
at	none	7	2, 6 & 8
away from	none	none	-
before	none	none	-
behind	4	11	2 & 3
below	none	none	-
beneath	none	1	4
beside	none	1	4
between	3	10	3
beyond	none	none	-
by	2	4	3
down	2	4	3
facing	none	none	-
for	2	2	6 & 8
from	3	13	1 & 5
in	58	237	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 & 8
in front of	4	10	2 & 3
inside	4	16	3
into	4	10	2, 4 & 8
near	3	5	3 & 6

(to be continued...)

preposition | No. of drills and | No. of sentences | Book
exercises

next (to)		none		none		-
of		1		1		5
off		none		none		-
on		20		87		1, 2, 3, 4, 5 & 8
onto		none		none		-
opposite		none		none		-
out of		none		none		-
outside		4		15		3
over		none		1		4
past		none		none		-
through		4		13		3 & 4
throughout		none		none		-
to		4		6		3, 4, 5 & 6
towards		none		none		-
under		3		8		2, 3 & 4
underneath		none		none		-
up		none		none		-
upon		none		none		-
via		none		none		-
within		none		none		-

From a mere look at the above tables, one can conclude the following:

1. Generally, prepositions of place relation are presented in the ECFI at random, i.e. without any premeditated plan. Of the 52 prepositions of place relation, only 28 are presented to Iraqi students during the seven years they are studying English. Some of the unused prepositions, like off, beyond, out of and below, are of high frequency of occurrence in spoken and written English, yet they are entirely ignored. This violates the criterion that a word should be selected for a course because of either its commonness of usage or its usefulness. None of the 52 prepositions of place relation can be regarded as uncommon or inessential enough to be completely discarded from a teaching course.

2. The two prepositions in and on appear to receive the strongest emphasis among all the prepositions. The number of occurrences of the first preposition is 237 and the second one 87. This is surprising, owing to the fact that these two prepositions are considered among the easiest for Arab learners of English to acquire since their direct Arabic equivalents /fii/ and /9alaa/ indicate the same meanings. This violates the principle that simple forms require no special emphasis, while a relatively strong emphasis should be laid on difficult forms which either have no direct equivalents in the MT or are differently conveyed. By this criterion, emphasis should be placed on prepositions like at, into, off, onto, etc., which receive no real attention at all in the ECFI.

3. The sequential presentation of prepositions of place relation in the ECFI has no justification at all. The distribution of prepositions in the eight books is shown below:

<u>book</u>	<u>number of prepositions used</u>
1	3
2	10
3	24
4	13
5	9 (5 sentences on <u>out of</u> and a sentence on each of the other eight prepositions)
6	9 (a sentence on each preposition)
7	- (no preposition is used)
8	6 (a sentence on each preposition)

This shows that Books 3 and 4, devoted to the intermediate level, incorporate the highest number of prepositions. Book 7 attracts attention since it deals with no prepositions at all. This distribution violates the principle that the material at primary level should be restricted and as simple as possible, whereas at advanced levels more material should be introduced in order to reinforce what the learners did at the primary level.

4. Some of the groupings of prepositions are unjustifiable in terms of either their semantic relationships or orthographic similarities. If one examines the group including by, to, near and down introduced together in Book 3, there is a semantic relationship only between by and near. No semantic or orthographic relations can be found between by and down, near and to, to and down, near and down or near and to.

Therefore, one can conclude that the English prepositions incorporated

in the ECFI are presented at random and have received inadequate attention. No guiding principles seem to be taken into consideration in determining their sequential order of presentation.

10.7. Conclusions and Recommendations

The results obtained from CA and EA lead us to conclude that mastering the English prepositional system is not an easy task for Arab learners of English. All the methods of teaching English prepositions suggested above are merely attempts to overcome some of the problems faced by Arab learners of English. The enormous number of errors made by the students who participated in the test is a good indication that, in spite of the long period of time such students have learned English as a foreign language and the intensive course they have taken to be prepared as teachers of English in Iraqi primary and secondary schools, they still face many problems. Thus, prepositions must be dealt with in a totally different way. Textbook writers and teachers should place more emphasis on teaching these words in order to facilitate their proper use by their students. The results obtained from contrastive/error analyses should be of great help to pedagogists, since they suggest the broad outlines of the difficulties arising from dealing with prepositions of place relation in English, as well as the causes of these difficulties. The different ways suggested for teaching English prepositions of place relation and the exercises introduced in the appendix should assist in the development of new ways of teaching prepositions. The writer suggests that such teaching should begin at primary level and continue to the most advanced levels because such words are essential in spoken and written English. No one can speak or write a paragraph in English

without using different kinds of prepositions. At primary levels, drills and exercises which show the contrasts among prepositions within the TL, like the ones introduced in the appendix, should be used since they are easy to master. Overlapping among prepositions and the contrasts between the prepositional systems in the two languages, i.e. Arabic and English, should be presented at later stages because they need a high level of learning to be understood.

The analysis of the data throughout this study also shows that all the intervening factors that hinder the learning of a second language are present in learning English prepositions. Though MT interference appeared to be the most serious factor, other factors such as contrasts and overlapping within the TL and other intralingual factors are not excluded. The tables also show that errors caused by prepositions that have no counterparts, or are conveyed differently in Arabic, have relatively higher percentages compared with those that have counterparts in the student's MT. Nevertheless, as stated on page 110, English prepositions whose use is similar to equivalent Arabic prepositions are not necessarily easy to acquire, since there are many errors arising from cases where senses can be conveyed in the same way by both the English prepositions and their Arabic counterparts. Tables 68 and 73 are obvious examples of this, because, as shown in these tables, the use of the English prepositions from and in, despite equivalence with the Arabic prepositions /min/ and /fii/, still results in many errors. Thus the findings of this study in this respect suggest that the claim by CA proponents that features which are similar in the two languages are easy to learn and consequently do not need much effort to teach, is misleading. This leads us to the conclusion that prepositions, whether they are similar or different in

the two languages, have to be concentrated on when they are introduced to Arab learners of English.

It is also misleading to claim that the students' MT is the only factor that hinders the learning of English prepositions. These problematic words seem not to submit themselves to many logical rules of usage. Contrasts and overlapping among English prepositions of place relation have to be concentrated on by textbook writers and teachers because they add more to the students' dilemma.

Another important fact arising from this study is that prepositions are not dealt with properly by textbook writers and teachers in Iraq. Though the test was administered to students who are going to be teachers of English in Iraq, their answer sheets look quite awful due to the high number of errors pervading them. This indicates that mastering the use of English prepositions of place relation has not been accomplished even by those who are going to teach them. Textbook writers, therefore, must be responsible for doing something to help students overcome such a problem. The various methods for teaching English prepositions suggested by different researchers, among whom is the present writer, have to be taken into consideration by pedagogists in Iraq and, perhaps, the Arab World as a whole when thinking of other ways of teaching these troublesome words.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Abii Asbar, J. S. Majmuu9at al-Huruuf al-Arabiyya wa Duruufihaa. Beirut, Daar al-9ilm Lilmalaayiin, 1968.
- Aboul-Fetouh, H. M. A Morphological Study of Egyptian Colloquial Arabic. Paris: Mouton The Hague, 1969.
- Adams, V. An Introduction to Modern English Word-Formation. London: Longman Group Ltd., 1973.
- Akmajian, A. and Henry F. An Introduction to the Principles of Transformational Syntax. New York: The Colonial Press Inc., 1975.
- AL-Galaayini, M. Jaami9 al-Duruus al-9arabiyyah. Beirut: al-Matba9ah al-9asriyyah Liltibaa9ah Walna9r, 1973.
- AL-Harawi, A. M. Kitaab al-Uzhiyah fii 9ilm al-Huruuf. Damascus, 1971.
- Al-Jaarim, A. and Mustafaa, A. Al-Nahw al-Waati9. Cairo: Matba9at al-Ma9aarif wamaktabatihaa biMisr, 1955.
- Al-Jumaili, A. "A Developmental Study of Certain Syntactic Structures of English by Arabic-Speaking Students." Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Edinburgh, 1982.
- Al-Khafaji, A. R. "A Formal Functional Approach for Contrastive Linguistics." English Language Teaching, 1975, PP. 90-95.
- AL-Saffar, A. A. D. A Semantico Syntactic Study of Classical Arabic in Case Grammar. London: School of Oriental and African Studies, Ph.D. Thesis, 1979.

- AL-Sayed, A. M. "An Introduction into the Syntactic Errors of Saudi Freshman's English Compositions." Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation; Indiana University of Pennsylvania, 1982.
- AL-Tunniyii, M. Mu9jam al-Adawat al-Nahwiiyah. Damascus: 1968.
- Allerton, D. J. Essentials of Grammatical Theory. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd., 1979.
- Allwright, R. L. "Some Problems in the Study of the Language Teachers' Treatment of Learner Error." In Burt and Dulay (eds.) on TESOL 75, TESOL Quarterly, 1975, PP. 96-109.
- Anderson, J. M. The Grammar of Case: towards a Localistic Theory. Cambridge: The University Press, 1971.
- Anshen, F. and Peter A. Schreiber "A Focus Transformation of Modern Standard Arabic." Language, Vol. 44, No. 4, 1968, PP. 792-797.
- Arrammash, H. H. "A Study of the Relevance of Error Analysis to Theories of Second Language Acquisition." M.Phil Dissertation, University of Sheffield, 1984.
- Banathy, B. H. and Madarasz, P. H. "Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis." Journal of English as a Second Language, No. 4, 1969, PP. 77-92.
- Banathy, B. H., Trager, F. and Waddle, C. "The Use of Contrastive Data in Foreign Language Course Development." In A. Valdman (ed.), Trends in Language Teaching. New York: McCraw-Hill, 1966, pp. 35-56.
- Barber, C. R. and Partners. Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary. William Collins Sons and Co. Ltd., 1987.
- Bates, J. J. "A Study of English Prepositions." University of Cambridge, Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. 1981.

- Bates, J. "Review of Bennett, D. C. (1975)." Lingua, No. 39, 1976, PP. 353-368.
- Bateson, C. M. Arabic Language Handbook. United States of America: Mass. Press, 1967.
- Becker, A. L. and Arms, D. C. "Prepositions as Predicates." Papers from the Fifth Regional Meeting of Chicago Linguistic Society, Vol. 18, 1969, PP. 1-11.
- Beeston, A. F. L. Written Arabic: An Approach to the Basic Structures. Cambridge: The University Press, 1968.
- Beeston, A. F. L. The Arabic Language Today. London: Hutchinson University Library, 1970.
- Bennett, C. D. "English Prepositions: A Stratificational Approach." Journal of Linguistics, Cambridge: The University Press, 1968, PP. 153-172.
- Bennet, C. D. Spatial and Temporal Uses of English Prepositions: An Essay in Stratificational Semantics. London: Longman Group Ltd., 1975.
- Berry, T. E. The Most Common Mistakes in English Usage. London: Sir Isaac Pittman and Sons Ltd., 1963.
- Bhatia, A. T. "An Error Analysis of Students' Compositions." IRAL, Vol. 12, No. 4, 1974, PP. 337-350.
- Blan, J. A Grammar of Christian Arabic. Paris: Lonvain, 1966.
- Bourenane, K. R. R. "English Learning in Algeria: An Analysis of Errors and Attitudes." Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, The University of Texas at Austin, 1984.
- Brooks, N. Language and Language Learning. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1964.

- Bruton, J. G. Exercises on English Prepositions and Adverbs. Thomas Nelsons and Sons Ltd., 1985.
- Bryant, M. N. Current American Usage. New York: Funk and Wagnalls Company, Inc., 1962.
- Buckingham, T. "Helping Students Using Prepositions." TESOL: Selected Articles from the English Teaching Forum, 1975, PP. 111-113.
- Bugarski, R. "Summetry and Assymetry in Prepositional Systems." In Papers to Mark the Fortieth Anniversary of the Department of English, University of Belgrad, 1966, PP. 57-69.
- Burt, M. K. "Error Analysis in the Adult EFL Classroom." TESOL Quarterly, Vol. 9, No. 1, 1975, PP. 53-63.
- Buteau, M. F. "Students' Errors and the Learning of French as a Second Language." IRAL, Vol. 8, 1970, PP. 133-145.
- Capek, M. The Concepts of Space and Time. Boston: D. Reidel Publishing Co., 1976. .
- Cantarino, V. Syntax of Modern Arabic Prose, Vol. 2, INdiana University Press, 1975.
- Catford, J. C. "Contrastive Analysis and Language Teaching." Report of the Nineteenth Annual Round Table Meeting on Linguistics and language teaching, 1968, PP. 159-173.
- Chau, T. T. "Error Analysis, Contrastive Analysis and Students' Perception: a Study of Difficulty in Second Language Learning." IRAL, Vol. 13, No. 2, 1975, 119-143.
- Chafe, L. Meaning and the Structure of the Language. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1970.

- Chomsky, N. Aspects of the Theory of Syntax. Cambridge: Mass, MIT Press, 1965.
- Chomsky, N. "Review of Skinner, Verbal Behaviour." Language, No. 35, 1959, PP. 26-58.
- Christephersen, P. and Arthur, O. S. An Advanced English Grammar. Macmillan and Co., Ltd., 1969.
- Christophersen, P. Second Language Learning: Myth and Reality. London: Penguin Education, 1973.
- Clark, H. H. "On Use and Meaning of Prepositions." Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behaviour, Vol. 7, 1968, PP. 421-431.
- Close, R. A. English as a Foreign Language. George Allen and Unwin (publishers) Ltd., 1977.
- Close, R. A. Prepositions. London: Longman, 1967.
- Cooper, G. S. A Semantic Analysis of English Locative Prepositions. Cambridge, Mass., Bolt, Beranek and Newman Inc., 1968.
- Corder, S. P. "Error analysis, Interlanguage and Second Language Acquisition." Language Teaching and Linguistics Surveys, 1978, PP. 201-213.
- Corder, S. P. "Idiosyncratic Dialects and Error Analysis." IRAL, Vol. 9, 1971, PP. 147-159.
- Corder, S. P. "The significance of Learner's Errors." IRAL, Vol. 5, No. 4, 1967, PP. 161-170.
- Cowan, D. An introduction to Modern Literary Arabic. Cambridge: University Press, 1958.
- Cowan, W. "Notes towards a Definition of Modern Standard Arabic." Language Learning, Vol. XVII, 1968, PP. 29-34.

- Cresswell, M.J. "Prepositions and Points of View." Linguistics and Philosophy. No. 2, 1978, PP. 1-41.
- Curme, G. O. A Grammar of the English Language: Parts of Speech and Accidence. Heath and Company, Vol. II, 1935.
- Curme, G. O. Syntax. Heath and Company, Vol. 3, 1931.
- Defence Language Institute. "A Contrastive Study of English Arabic". Defence Language Institute, Washington, D. C., 1974.
- Delshad, S. Persian and English Prepositions Compared and Contrasted from a Pedagogical Point of View. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, The University of Texas at Austin, 1980.
- Dereike, B. "What is the Sense of Prepositions ?" Studia Linguistica, No. 24, 1973, 80-89.
- Di Pietru, R. J. "Constructive Analysis and the Notion of Deep and Surface Grammar." Alatis, 1968, PP. 65-80.
- Di Pietru, R. J. "Language Structure in Contrast." Rowley, Mass: Newbury House Publishers, 1971.
- Doss, L. "Teaching English in the United Arab Republic." English Language Teaching, Vol. XXIV, 1970, PP. 169-172.
- Diller, K. C. Generative Grammar, Structural Linguistics, and Language Teaching. Rowley, Mass: Newbury House Publishers, 1971.
- Dulay, H. C. and Marina, K. B. "Goofing: An Indication of Children's Second Language Learning Strategic." Language Learning, Vol. 22, No. 2, 1972, PP. 235-252.
- Dulay, H. C. and Marina, K. B. "Process in Child Second Language Acquisition." Language Learning, Vol. 24, No. 2, 1974, 253-278.

- Dulay, H. C. and Marina, K. B. "You Can't Learn Without Goofing: An Analysis of Children's Second Language Errors." In J. C. Richards (ed.). Error Analysis, 1974, PP. 95-123.
- Durkin, K. "Spatial and Temporal Prepositions in the Language of Young School Children." Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Cambridge, 1979.
- Duskova, L. "On Sources of Errors in Foreign Language Learning." IRAL, Vol. 1, No. 1, 1969, PP. 11-36.
- Echman, F. R. "Markedness and the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis." Language Learning, Vol. 27, No. 2, 1977, PP. 315-330.
- El-Azabi, H. English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary. Oxford University Press, 1984.
- Erwin, W. M. A Short Reference Grammar of Iraqi Arabic. Washington: Georgetown University Press, 1963.
- Fairclough, N. L. Studies in the Collocation of Lexical Items with Prepositions and Adverbs in a Corpus of Spoken and Written Present-Day English. Unpublished M.A. Thesis, University of London, 1965.
- Ferguson, C. A. "Contrastive Analysis and Language Development." Contrastive Analysis and its Pedagogical Implications, ed. by Alatis, Washington, 1968, PP. 101-112.
- Ferguson, C. A. "General Introduction to the Contrastive Structure Series." The Grammatical Structures of English and Spanish. ed. by Stockwell, Bowen, and Martin, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1965, PP. v-vi.

- Fillmore, C. J. "A Proposal Concerning English Prepositions." Round Table Meeting on Linguistics and Language Studies, 17th, 1966, PP. 19-33.
- Fillmore, C. J. Modern Studies in English Readings in Transformational Grammar. Edited by Reibel and Shane, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc., Englewood, 1969.
- Fillmore, C. J. "Some Problems for Case Grammar." Monograph Series on languages and Linguistics, Vol. 24, 1977, PP. 35-56.
- Fillmore, C. J. "The Case for Case." Universals in Linguistic Theory, ed. by Emmon Bach and Robert T. Harms, New York: Holt Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1968, PP. 1-88.
- Finch, A. J. A Comparative Study of Prepositions in English and Bahasa Malay with Particular Emphasis on Prepositional Relationship of Space and Time. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Birmingham University, 1983.
- Fisiak, J. Contrastive Linguistics and the Language Teacher. Poland University of Adam Mickiewicz, Poznan, 1981.
- Fiteih, M. S. I. Prepositions and Prepositional Verbs in Classical Arabic. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Leeds, 1983.
- Fowler, H. W. and Fowler, F. G. The King's English. London: Oxford University Press, 1938.
- Francis, N. W. The Structure of American English. The Ronald Press Company, 1956.
- Frank, M. Modern English: A Practical Reference Guide. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc., Englewood Cliffs, 1972.

- Fries, C. C. American English Grammar. New York: Appelton-Century-Grofts Inc., 1941.
- Fries, C. C. Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 1945.
- George, H. V. Common Errors in Language Learning. Rowley, Mass., 1972.
- Ghadessy, M. "Prepositions and Prepositional Patterns." IRAL, Vol. 12, No. 4, 1974, PP. 307-316
- Gradman, H. L., "The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis: What it is and what it isn't." Dissertation Abstracts: International, 31/12, 6579, 1970.
- Green, A. O. A Practical Arabic Grammar. Part: 1. Oxford: The Clarendon Press., 1983.
- Grimm, H. "On the Child Acquisition of the Semantic Structure Underlying the Worldfield of Prepositions." Language and Speech, Vol. 18, No. 2, 1975, PP. 79-118.
- Hall, D. Working with English Prepositions. U. K. Thomas Nelson and Son Ltd., 1986.
- Hall, R. "Contrastive Grammar and the Text-book Structure." Report of The Nineteenth Annual Round Table Meeting on Linguistics and Language Teaching, 1968, PP. 175-181.
- Hamp, E. P. "What a Contrastive Grammar is not, if it is." Alatis, 1968, PP. 137-147.
- Hanna, H. M. The Phrase Structure of Egyptian Colloquial Arabic. Paris: Mouton The Hague, 1967.
- Harris, Z. Methods in Structural Linguistics. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1951.

- Hassan, A. AL-Nahw al-Waafii. Vol. 11, Cairo: Dar al-Ma9aarif biMisr, 1973.
- Haward, A. L. and Sparkes, J. J. The Concise English Dictionary. New Orchard Editions Ltd., 1968.
- Haywood, J. A. and Nahmad, H. M. A New Arabic Grammar. London: Lund Humphries, 1965.
- Haywood, J. A. and Nahmad, H. M. A New Arabic Grammar of the Written Language. London: Lund Humphries, 1970.
- Heaton, S. B. Prepositions and Adverbial Particles. London: Longman, Green and Co. Ltd., 1965.
- Henning, G. H. "A Developmental Analysis of Errors of Adult Iranian Students of English as a Foreign Language." Language Learning. PP. 1978, PP. 387-397.
- Hill, L. A. Prepositions and Adverbial Particles: An Interim Classification Semantic, Structural and Graded. London: Oxford University Press, 1968.
- Ho-Peng, L. "Errors and Error Analysis in TESL: The Malaysian Experience." Relc Journal, Vol. 7, 1973, PP. 23-29.
- Hornby, A. S. A Guide to Patterns and Usage in English. London: Collier Macmillan International, 1966.
- Hornby, A. S., Gatenby, E. V. and Wakefield, H. The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English. London: Oxford University Press, 1961.
- Huddleston, R. Introduction to the Grammar of English. Cambridge University Press, 1984.
- Ibn Aqil, B. A. A. Farh Ibn Aqil, 9alaa 9alfiyyat al-Imaam al-Thabaat:

- Abii Abdallah Muhammed Jamal al-Diin Ibn Maalik. Cairo: al-Maktabah al-Tijaariyya al-Kubra biMisr, 1967.
- Ibrahim, A. A. AL-Nahw al-Tatbiiqii. Cairo: Daar al-Ma9aarif biMisr, 1969.
- Ibrahim, M. "Diglossia and foreign language teaching." IRAL, No. 2, 1977, PP. 158-163.
- Jackendoff, R. S. "The Base Rules for Prepositional Phrases." A Festschrift for Morris Halle. Ed. by Anderson and Kiparsky, 1973, PP. 315-356.
- Jackson, K. "The Verification and Comparison of CA, In the Pacific Conference on CLs and Language Universals Papers." Working Papers in Linguistics, University of Hawaii, Working Paper No. 3, 1970, PP. 201-210.
- Jacobs, R. A. and Rosenbaum, P. S. English Transformational Grammar. London: Blaisdell Publishing Co., 1968.
- Jacobsen, B. Transformational Generative Grammar. North Holland Publishing Company, Amsterdam - New york - Oxford, 1977.
- Jacobvits, L. A. "Second Language Learning and Transfer Theory." Language Learning, No. 19, 1969, 55-86.
- Jacobvits, L. A. "Foreign Language Learning: A Psycholinguistic Analysis of the Issue." Rowely, Mass: Newbury House Publishers, 1970.
- Jain, M. P. "Error Analysis: Source, Cause and Significance: Perspectives on Second Language Acquisition." Applied Linguistics and Language Study, ed. by J. Richards, London, 1974, PP. 189-215.
- James, C. Contrastive Analysis. London: Longman Group Ltd., 1980.

- James, C. "The erculpation of Contrastive Linguistics." Papers in Contrastive Linguistics, 1971, PP. 53-67.
- Jawaska, E. "Aspects of the Syntax of Prepositions and Prepositional Phrases in English and Polish." Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Oxford University, 1986.
- Jespersen, O. Essentials of English Grammar. London: George Allen and Unwin Ltd., 1952.
- Jespersen, O. The Philosophy of Grammar. London: George Allen and Unwin Ltd., 1924.
- Jessen, M. E. "A Semantic Study of Spatial and Temporal Expressions in English." Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Edinburgh, 1975.
- Johansson, S. "The uses of Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis." ELTJ, Vol. XXIX, Part 1, 1975, PP. 247-252.
- Johansson, S. "The Uses of Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis." ELTJ, Vol. XXIX, Part 2, 1975, PP. 303-337.
- Khampang, P. "Thai Difficulties in Using English Prepositions." Glottodidactica, Vol. 24, 1966, PP. 215-222.
- Kreidler, C. W. "English Prepositions." English Language Teaching, Vol. 20, No. 21, 1966, PP. 119-122.
- Kuzmicha, B. "Prepositions Expressing the Spatial Relations in English and Polish". Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Poznan, Poland, 1978.
- Lado, R. Language Teaching: A Scientific Approach. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1964.
- Lado, R. Linguistics Across Cultures. Ann Arbor: University of

Michigan Press, 1957.

Lane, E. W. Arabic English Lexicon. New York: Frederick Unger Publishing Co., 1955.

Langendoen, D. T. Essentials of English Grammar. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1970.

Lee, W. R. "Thoughts on Contrastive Linguistics in the Context of Language Teaching." Round Table Meeting, 1968, PP. 185-194.

Leech, A., Denchar, M. and Hoogenraad, R. English Grammar for Today: A new Introduction. London: Macmillan Publishers Ltd., 1982.

Leech, G. and Svartvik, J. A Communicative Grammar of English. London: Longman Group Ltd., 1975.

Leech, G. N. Semantics. Middlesex: Penguin Books, Ltd., 1974.

Leech, G. N. Towards a Semantic Description of English. London: Longman Groups Ltd., 1971.

Lentzner, K. R. "Semantic and Syntactic Aspects of Arabic Prepositions." Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of George Town, 1977.

Lindkvist, K. G. Studies on the Local Sense of the Prepositions IN, AT, ON, and TO in Modern English. Lund: Berlingska Boktryckeriet, 1950.

Lindkvist, K. G. The Local Sense of the Prepositions Over, Above, and Across Studied in Present-Day English. Stockholm: Almqvist and Wiksell International, 1972.

Ljunggren, R. G. "Towards a Definition of the Concept of Prepositions." Studia Linguistica, Vol. 5, 1951, PP. 7-20.

Low, O. Grammar for Everyday Use. London: Collins, ELT., 1986.

- Mackenzie, J. L. 'On Taking Prepositions Seriously: an Examination of Jackendoff's Base Rules for Prepositional Phrases." Work in Progress 8, University of Edinburgh, 1975, PP. 116-128.
- MacCarthy, K. "Teaching English Prepositions." TEFL, 6, March, 1972.
- Makatash, L. "Errors Made by Arab University Students in the Use of English Prepositions." Glottodidactica, Vol. 17, 1985, PP. 47-64.
- Marton, W. "Contrastive Analysis in the Classroom." PSiCL, Vol. 1, ed. by J Fisiak, Poznan, 1973, PP. 15-22.
- Marton, W. "Some Remarks on the Formal Properties of Contrastive Pedagogical Grammars." Proceedings of the 3rd. AILA Congress, ed. by Copenhagen, G. and Nickel. Vol. 1, 1974, PP. 182-195.
- Mehdi, M. F. "The Interference of Arabic in the Use of English Prepositions". Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, The University of Texas at Austin, 1981.
- Meziani, A. "Moroccan Learners' English Errors: A Pilot Study." IRAL, Vol. 22, 1984, PP. 297-310.
- Michael, I. English Grammatical Categories. Cambridge: The University Press, 1970.
- Miller, C. A Grammar of Modern English for Foreign Students. London: Longman Green and Company, 1946.
- Ministry of Education. The New English Course for Iraq: Book I. 9th. Revised Edition, Baghdad: Ministry of Education Printing Press, 1988.
- Ministry of Education. The New English Course for Iraq: Book 2. 3rd. Revised Edition, Baghdad: Ministry of Education Printing Press, 1984.

- Ministry of Education. The New English Course for Iraq: Book 3. 8th. Revised Edition, Baghdad: Ministry of Education Printing Press, 1989.
- Ministry of Education. The New English Course for Iraq: Book 4. 8th. Revised Edition, Baghdad: Ministry of Education Printing Press, 1989.
- Ministry of Education. The New English Course for Iraq: Book 5. 7th. Revised Edition, Baghdad: Ministry of Education Printing Press, 1988.
- Ministry of Education. The New English Course for Iraq: Book 6. 1st. Revised Edition, Baghdad: Ministry of Education Printing Press, 1989.
- Ministry of Education. The New English Course for Iraq: Book 7. 6th. Revised Edition, Baghdad: Ministry of Education Printing Press, 1988.
- Ministry of Education. The New English Course for Iraq: Book 8. 7th. Revised Edition, Baghdad: Ministry of Education Printing Press, 1988.
- Mitchell, T. F. An Introduction to Egyptian Colloquial Arabic. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1978.
- Nasir, T. R. The Structure of Arabic. Beirut: Librairie Du Liban, Riad Sulh Square, 1967.
- Nemser, W. "Approximative Systems of Foreign Language Learners." IRAL, Vol. 9, No. 12, 1971, PP. 55-63.
- Newmark, L. and Reibel, D. A. "Necessity and sufficiency in language

learning." IRAL, Vol. 6, No. 2, 1968, PP. 145-164.

Newmark, L. "Grammatical Theory and the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language." Readings in Applied Transformational Grammar, London: Holt Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1970, PP. 202-210.

Nickel, G. and Wagner, H. K. "Contrastive Linguistics and Language Teaching." IRAL, Vol. 6, No. 2, 1968, PP. 233-255.

Nickel, G. "Contrastive Linguistics and Foreign Language Teaching." Paper in Contrastive Linguistics, 1971, PP. 1-16.

Norwood, J. E. "Notes on some Aspects of the Preposition." Philologica Pragensia, Vol. xii, 1969, PP. 144-151.

Oller, J. W. "Contrastive Analysis: Difficulty and Predicability." Foreign Language Annals, Vol. 6, 1972, PP. 95-106.

Olsson, M. "The Effect of Different Types of Errors in the Communication Situation." In Svartvik, J. (ed.), 1973, PP. 153-158.

Parisi, D. and Antinucci, F. Essentials of Grammar. Translated by Elizabeth, B., New York: Academic Press, 1976.

Pittman, G.A. Activating the Use of Prepositions. London, 1966.

Politzer, R. L. and Staubach, C. N. Teaching Spanish: A Linguistic Orientation, New York: Blaisdel, 1961.

Postal, P. Cross-Over Phenomenon. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1971.

Quirk, R. and Greenbaum, S. A University Grammar of English. London: Longman Group Ltd., 1973.

Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech, G. and Svartvik, J. A Grammar of Contemporary English. London: Longman Group Ltd., 1973.

- Ravem, R. "Language Acquisition in a Second Language Environment." IRAL, Vol. VI, No. 2, 1968, PP. 129-133.
- Richards, J. C. and Sampson, G. P. "The Study of learner English", Error Analysis — Perspectives in Second Language Acquisition, Applied Linguistics and Language Study, ed. by Richards, London, 1974, 3-18.
- Richards, J. C. "A Non-Contrastive Approach to Error Analysis." EITJ, Vol. 25, 1971, PP. 207-219.
- Richards, J. C. "Error Analysis and Second Language Strategics." Language Sciences, Vol. 17, 1971, in New Frontiers in Second Language Learning, ed. by J. Schuman and N. Stenson, Newbury House Publishers, Inc., Rowley, Mass., PP. 12-22, 1974.
- Richards, J. Error analysis: Perspectives on Second Language Acquisition. London: Longman, 1974.
- Richards, J. "Social Factors, Interlanguage and Language Learning." Language Learning, Vol. 22, No. 2, 1972, PP. 46-91.
- Ritchie, W. C. "Some Implications of Generative Grammar for the Construction of Courses in English as a Foreign Language." Language Learning, Vol. XVII, Nos. 1 and 2, 1967, PP. 45-69.
- Rivers, W. "Contrastive Linguistics in Text-book and Classroom." Report of the Nineteenth Annual Round Table Meeting on Linguistics and Language Teaching, 1968.
- Roberts, P. Modern Grammar. New York: Horcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1967.
- Roberts, P. Understanding Grammar, New York: Harper and Row Publishers Incorporated, 1954.
- Saheb - Ettaba, M. Arabic Made Easy. New York, David McKay Co., Inc.,

1959.

Schacter, J. and Celce-Marica, M. "Some Reservations Concerning Error Analysis." TESOL Quarterly, Vol. 11, No. 4, 1977, PP. 441-453.

Schacter, J. "An Error in Error Analysis." Language Learning, Vol. 24, No. 2, 1974, PP. 205-214.

Schibsbye, K. A Modern English Grammar. London: O.U.P., 1970.

Schumann, J. H. and Stenson, N. New Frontiers in Second Language Learning. Rowley, Mass., Newbury House Publishers, 1974.

Schumann, J. "Implications of Pidginization and Creolization for the Study of Adult Second Language Acquisition", TESOL Quarterly, Vol. 8, No. 2, 1974, PP. 137-152.

Sciarone, A. G. "Contrastive Analysis — Possibilities and Limitations", IRAL, No. 8, 1970, PP. 115-131.

Scott, M. S. and Tucker, G. R. "Error Analysis and English Language Strategies of Arab Students." Language Learning, Vol. 24, 1974, PP. 169-179.

Selinker, L. "Interlanguage." IRAL, Vol. 10, No. 3, 1972, PP. 209-231.

Setian, R. "Grammatical Interference in the Teaching of English to Egyptian Students." ELIJ, Vol. 3, 1974, PP. 253-257.

Sinclair, J. McH. A Course in Spoken English: Grammar. London: University Press, 1972.

Sledd, J. A Short Introduction to English Grammar. Chicago: Scott, Foreman and Company, 1959.

Socin, A. Arabic Grammar. London: Williams and Norgate, 1895.

Spolsky, B. "Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis, Interlanguage and

other Useful Fads." Modern Language Journal, Nos. 5 and 6, 1979, PP. 250-257.

Sridhar, S. N. "Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis and Interlanguage: Three Faces of one Goal." Indian Linguistics, Vol. 37, 1976, 258-281.

Stageberg, N. C. An Introductory English Grammar. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965.

Stenson, N. "Induced Errors." In Schuman, J. H. and Stenson, N. (eds.), Rowley, Mass., Newbury House Publishers, 1974, PP. 54-68.

Stetkevych, J. The Modern Arabic Literary Language: Lexical and Stylistic Developments. The University of Chicago Press, 1970.

Strang, B., Modern English Structure, London: Edward Arnold (Publishers) Ltd., 1962.

Strange, D. Pictures for Prepositions. London: In-home Publication of the Centre for British Teachers, 1982.

Stevens, P. Papers in Language and Language Teaching. London: Oxford University Press, 1965.

Svartvik, J. (ed.) Errata: Papers in Error Analysis. Stockholm: 1973.

Svartvik, J. "Introduction to Errata." Errata, Lund CWK Gleerup, 1977, PP. 1-15.

Swan, M. Practical English Usage, London: Oxford University Press, 1980.

Sweet, H. New English Grammar. London: Oxford University Press, 1960.

Taher, M. M. "A Comparative Study of the Use of Prepositions in Classical and Modern Arabic as Recorded in Books and

- Dictionaries". Unpublished M.A. Thesis, University of Leeds, 1985.
- Takahaski, G. "Perception of Space and Function of Certain English Prepositions." Journal of Applied Linguistics, Vol. XIX, 1969, PP. 217-234.
- Tamvakaki, M. J.; "Contrastive Analysis Versus Error Analysis: an Account of Prepositional Errors in the English of Greek Learners". M.A. Thesis, University of Exeter, 1982.
- Taylor, B. P. "Adult Language Learning Strategies and their Pedagogical Implications." TESOL Quarterly, Vol. 9, 1975, PP. 391-399.
- Taylor, C. V. "Sources of Error in Foreign Language Teaching." ELTJ, Vol. XXX, No. 3, 1976, PP. 191-195.
- Thomas, O. Transformational Grammar and the Teacher of English. New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965.
- Thomson, A. J. and Martinet, A. V. A Practical English Grammar. London: Oxford University Press, 1986.
- Topping, D. "Contrastive Analysis and Sandhi Alternations." Language Learning, Vol. 14, Nos. 3 and 4, 1964.
- Tucker, G. R. and Marian, S. "Investigating Linguistic Acceptability with Egyptian EFL Students." TESOL Quarterly, 1979, PP. 29-40.
- Upshur, J. A. "Language Proficiency testing and the Contrastive Analysis Dilemma." Language Learning, No. 12, 1962, PP. 123-127.
- Valdman, A. Trends in Language Teaching. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1966.
- Vestegaard, T. "Prepositional Phrases and Prepositional Verbs: A Study in Grammatical Function." Janua Linguarum, Series Minor, No. 161, 1977.

- Wallis, J. The Grammar of the English Language. London: Longman Group Ltd., 1972.
- Wardhaugh R. "The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis." TESOL Quarterly, Vol. 4, No. 2, 1970, PP. 123-130.
- Weinrich, U. "Current Trends in Linguistics." Exploration in Semantic Theory, ed. by Thomas A.S. The Hague: Mouton, 1970, PP. 395-477.
- Weinrich, U. "On the Semantic Structure of Language." Universals of Language, ed. by Joseph Greenberg. Cambridge: MIT Press, 1963, PP. 142-216.
- White, L. "Error Analysis and Error Correction in Adult Learners of English." Working Papers on Biligualism, Vol. 13, 1977, 42-58.
- Wilcox, S. and Palermo, D.S. "In, On, and Under Revised". Cognition, Vol. 3, No. 3, 1975, PP. 245-254.
- Wilkins, D. A. Linguistics in Language Teaching. London: Edward Arnold, 1972.
- Wilkins, D. A. "Review of Trends in Language Teaching." IRAL, Vol. 6, No. 1, 1968, PP. 99-107.
- Wise, H. A Transformational Grammar of Spoken Egyptian Arabic. Oxford: Basil Blackwell, 1975.
- Wood, T. F. English Prepositional Idioms. New York: St Martin's Press, 1967.
- Wright, W. A Grammar of the Arabic Language. Cambridge: The University Press, 1951.
- Wyatt, V. "An Analysis of Errors in Composition Writing." English Language Teaching, Vol. 27, No. 2, 1973, PP. 177-186.
- Ziadeh, F. J. and Wirdor, R. B. An Introduction to Modern Arabic.

London: Oxford University Press, 1957.

Zobl, H. "Development and Transfer Errors: Their Common Bases and (possibly) Differential Effects on Subsequent Learning". TESOL Quarterly, Vol. 14, 1980, PP. 460-479.

Zobl, H. "The Formal And Developmental Selectivity of L1 Influence on L2 Acquisition." Language learning, Vol. 30, No. 1, 1980, PP. 43-57.

Zughoul, M. R. "Teaching English Prepositions." English Teaching Forum, Vol. XVII, No. 2, 1979, PP. 24-29.

GLASGOW
UNIVERSITY
LIBRARY

UNIVERSITY OF GLASGOW



An Analytic Study of Errors
Made by
Iraqi Students
in Using
English Prepositions of Place Relation

Zuheir A. Abdul Rahman

Thesis Submitted in Fulfilment
of
Requirements for the Degree
of
Doctor of Philosophy

University of Glasgow
Faculty of Arts
Department of English Language

September 1990
(Vol. II)

© Zuheir A. Abdul Rahman, 1990

APPENDIX A

COMPARISON OF OTHER SENSES

About /hawla/hawaali/

a. near(ly); approximately

SE

He came about seven
o'clock.

SA

/jaa?a hawaali ?alsaa9ati
?alsaabi9ati/ (S)
(similar)

b. on the point of; in the act of

SE

She was about to speak
when I stopped her.

SA

/kaanat 9alaa wafaki ?an
tatakallama 9indamaa
?awqaftuhaa/ D
(different)

c. concerning; on the subject of

SE

He talked about the weather

SA

/takallama 9an ?aljawwi/ (D)

d. performing; engaged in

SE

She doesn't like to be
interrupted when she is
about an important piece
of work.

SA

/laatuhibbu ?an tuqaata9a
9indamaa takuunu munhamikatan
fii ?injaazi 9amalin
muhimmin/ (D)

e. pertaining to as a part of a person's
character or appearance

SE

There was something about
him that I did not like.

SA

/hunaaka jay?un fiihi laa
?uhibbuhu/ (D)

Above

/fawqa/

a. higher than in status, ability, etc.

SE

We should always show

SA

/9alaynaa daa?iman ?an nubdii

respect to those above
us.

?ihtiraaman liman hum ?a9laa
minnaa manzilatan/ (D)

b. higher than in number, amount, or quality

SE

Above two hundred people
attended the meeting.

SA

/hadara ?al?ijtimaa9a ?akøaru
min mi?atay faxsin/ (D)

c. superior to

SE

All these men were honest
and above bribery.

SA

/kullu haa?ulaa?i ?alrijaali
fura faa?u wa?arfa9u min ?an
yakuunu murtafiin/ (D)

d. beyond the reach of

SE

You can't expect to succeed
if you attempt tasks above
your ability.

SA

/laatatawaqqa9 ?an tanjaha
9indamaa tuhaawilu ?an
taquuma bi?a9maalin fawqa
taaqatika/ (S)

After

/ba9da/

a. later than

SE

We will discuss the matter
after dinner.

SA

/sanunaaqifu ?almas?alata
ba9da ?altuhri/ (S)

b. at the end of a specified segment

SE

He arrived after three
weeks.

SA

/wasala ba9da øalaaøati
?asaabii9/ (S)

c. following

SE

They drove mile after
mile through open
moorland.

SA

/?iqtaaduu markabatihim
miilan ba9da miil fii
?ardin sahlatin/ (S)

d. resembling; in imitation of

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
This is a portrait <u>after</u>	/haatihi suuratun tumaøøilu	
Gainsborough.	gainsboroo/	(D)

e. considering

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
You shouldn't complain	/ʕalayka ʔan laataʃkuu ba9da	
<u>after</u> all you have been	kulli ʔallatii ʔu9tiya	
given.	ʔilayk/	(S)

Against

/9aks/did/

a. in opposition to

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
I am <u>against</u> that proposal.	/ʔanaa diddu haataa	
	ʔalmuqtarahi/	(S)

b. in anticipation; in preparation for

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
He saved money <u>against</u>	/jama9a maalan ʔabyada	
a rainy day.	liyawmin ʔaswad/	(D)

Alongside

/bimuhaaʔaati/

in comparison with

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
His works are second-rate	/tu9tabaru ʔa9maalahu	
productions <u>alongside</u>	darajatan øaaniyatan	
those of some of his	<u>mugaaratan</u> biʔa9maali	
friends.	mu9aaʕiriihi/	(D)

Amid(st)

/wasta/

at the same time

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
The debate took place	/kaana yajrii ʔalniqaafu	

<p><u>amid(st)</u> a mood of growing political hysteria.</p>	<p><u>wasta</u> hayajaanun siyaasiyyun/</p>	<p>(S)</p>
--	---	------------

<p>Among</p>	<p>/bayna/</p>
--------------	----------------

a. the idea of distribution over all
members of a specified group

SE

SA

The food was distributed
among(st) the poor.

<p>a. /wuzzi9a ?alt9aamu <u>bayna</u> ?alfuqaraa?i/</p>	<p>(S)</p>
---	------------

<p>b. /wuzzi9a ?alt9aamu <u>9alaa</u> ?alfuqaraa?i/</p>	<p>(D)</p>
---	------------

b. the idea of co-operation or aggregation

SE

SA

Among(st) them they
collected over a
hundred dinars.

<p>/jama9uu akøara min mi?ati dinaarin fiima <u>baynihim</u>/</p>	<p>(S)</p>
---	------------

c. within a number of a group specified

SE

SA

I found the letter among(st)
some papers.

<p>/wajadtu ?alrisaalata <u>bayna</u> ?al?awraaqi/</p>	<p>(S)</p>
--	------------

d. in the number/class of

SE

SA

He is ranked among(st)
our greatest writers.

<p>a. /sunnifa/?9tubira <u>min</u> kuttaabinaa ?al9idaam/</p>	<p>(D)</p>
---	------------

<p>b. /sunnifa/?u9tubira <u>min</u> <u>bayni</u> kuttaabinaa ?al9idaam/</p>	<p>(D)</p>
---	------------

Around

/hawla/hawaali/

a. giving support to

SE

SA

The reformer soon gathered

/sur9aana maa jama9a

a band of followers (a)round
him.

?almuslihu majmuu9atan
min ?al?atbaa9i
hawlahu/ (S)

b. about

SE

His story is built (a)round
two central characters.

SA
/kaanat qissatahu taduuru
hawla laxsiyyatayni
ra?iisiyyatayni/ (S)

At

/9inda/

a. a point in time

SE

They came at half past seven.

SA
/jaa?uu fii ?alsaa9ati
?alsaabi9ati wa?alnisf/ (D)

b. a state or condition

SE

I never feel at ease in
his company.

SA
/laa?a9uru biraahatin
birifqatihi mu~~t~~laqan/ (D)

c. engaged in

SE

She loved to watch
children at play.

SA
/tuhibbu ?an turaaqiba
?al?atfaala 2aønaa?a
?alla9ibi/ (D)

d. manner

SE

He vaulted over the fence
at a single leap.

SA
/9abara ?alsiyaaja
hqafzatin waahidatin/ (D)

e. reason

SE

At the suggestion of our
parents, we stayed at home.

SA
/2aqaynaa fii baytinaa
bimuqtarahin min
waalidaynaa/ (D)

f. the condition on which something is done

SE

SA

Cars are parked at their
owners' risk.

/tuwaqqafu ?almarkabaatu
9alaa mas?uulayyati
?ashaabihaa/ (D)

g. the rate either of movement(a) or of the charge made
for goods or services(b)

SE

SA

a. He normally drives at
thirty miles an hour.

/daa?iman maa yasuuqu
bisur9ati talaatiina miilan
fii ?alsaa9ati/ (D)

b. Eggs are sold at
fifty fils a dozen.

/yubaa9u ?albaydu
bixamsiina falsan
lildarzani ?alwaahidi/ (D)

h. the occasion that leads to something taking place

SE

SA

At the mention of money,
the stranger became attentive.

/haala tikri ?almaali
?intabaha ?algariibu/ (D)

i. motion towards or the object of at as the recipient of
some activity

SE

SA

He kicked violently at
the door.

/kaana yadribu biqawwatin
nahwa/bi?ittijaahi
?albaabi/ (D)

j. the field in which capabilities or attainments lie

SE

SA

The boy is clever at
mathematics.

/?alwaladu takiyyun fii
?alriyaadiyyaati/ (D)

Before

/qabla/

a. earlier than

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
We got up <u>before</u> sunrise.	/nahadnaa <u>qabla</u> furuuqi ?al?amsi/	(S)

b. immediately preceding

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
They travelled abroad the day <u>before</u> yesterday.	/saafaruu ?ilaa ?alxaarigi <u>?awala</u> ?amsi/	(D)

c. preparatory to

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
<u>Before</u> crossing the road, you should look both ways.	/qabla 9ubuuri ?aljaari9i 9alayka ?an tander ?ilaa kilaa ?aljaanibayn /	(S)

d. occupying a superior place in order of precedence

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
a. A general comes <u>before</u> a colonel.	/fii ?altasulsuli, ya?tii ?alfarii? <u>qabla</u> ?al9aqiidi/	(S)

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
b. Work should come <u>before</u> pleasure.	/yajib ?an ya?tii ?al9amalu <u>qabla</u> ?alla9ibi/	(S)

Behind

/waraa?a/xalfa/ba9da/

a. later than

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
He arrived at the office two hours <u>behind</u> me.	/wasala ?ilaa ?aldaa?irati <u>ba9dii/xalfii/waraa?ii</u> bisaa9atayn/	(S)

b. in the past and not likely to occur again

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
All our difficulties are now <u>behind</u> us.	/taraknaa kulla ma?aakilinaa <u>waraa?anaa/xalfanaa/</u> <u>ba9danaa/</u>	(S)

c. remaining after one's departure

SE

Someone has left his
umbrella behind him.

SA

/taraka ?ahadahum matallatahu
waraa?ahu/ba9dahu
xalfahu/

(S)

d. less advanced in attainment

SE

She is rather behind her
class in algebra.

SA

/hiya mutaxallifatun
9an ?ashaabihaa fii
mawduu9i ?aljabri/

(D)

e. underlying

SE

This is the real reason
behind his departure.

SA

/haataa huwa ?alsababu
?alhaqiiqi waraa?a
rahiilihi/

(S)

f. supporting

SE

I knew my friends were
behind me in this matter.

SA

/a9rifu ?anna ?asdiqaa?ii
yu?ayyiduuni fii haatihi
?alqadiyyati/

(D)

g. developing or creating

SE

The man behind the
modernizing of the
station was Mr Brown.

SA

/?inna ?alfaxsa ?allatii
kaana waraa?a tahdiiøi
?almahattati huwa ?alsayyid
braun/

(S)

Below

/tahta/

a. at a lower level in value or status

SE

In a hospital, a nurse comes
below a matron.

SA

/fii ?almustafaa, takuunu
?almumarridatu 2adnaa
manzilatatan min ra?iisati

?almumarriḡaat/ (D)

b. lower on a scale

SE

Water changes into ice
when the temperature is
below zero.

SA

/yataḡawwalu ?almaa?u
?ilaa øaljin 9indamaa
takuunu darajatu ?alḡaraarati
taḡta ?alsifri/ (S)

Beneath

/taḡta/

a. inferior to

SE

As a scholar, he is far
beneath his brother.

SA

/kataalibi 9ilmin, huwa
?aḡallu kafaa?tan min
?axiihi/ (D)

b. as a result of

SE

He staggered beneath the blow.

SA

*/tarannaha min jiddati
?alḡarbati/ (D)

c. unworthy of

SE

You should consider it
beneath you to stoop
to such conduct.

SA

/9alayka ?an ta9tabira
?anna taḡurrufaka biḡaataa
?almustawaa huwa duuna
mustawaak/ (D)

Beside

/biḡaanibi/janba/

a. compared with

SE

My work is poor beside yours.

SA

/yu9tabaru 9amalii faqiiran
muḡaaranatan bi9amalika/ (D)

b. indicating co-operation

SE

SA

The nation should not
regard them as respectable
allies beside whom American
troops should fight.

/sawfa lan ta9tbirahum
?al?ummatu hula faa?a
muhtaramuun lituhaariba
?alquwaatu ?al?amriikiyyatu
bijaanibihim/ (S)

Between

/bayna/

a. within the time separating two points of time

SE

SA

The burglary took place
between 9 and 10 p.m.

/hadaøat ?alsariqatu
bayna ?altaasi9ati
wa?al9aa?irati laylan/ (S)

b. to express this idea with regard to amounts,
distances, sums of money, etc.

SE

SA

The repairs are likely to
cost between fifty and
sixty dinars.

/satukallifu ?altasliihaatu
bayna ?alxamsiina
wa?alsittiina dinaaran/ (S)

c. to suggest intervention, with the idea of separation

SE

SA

A distracted woman threw
herself between the
combatants.

/ramat ?almar?atu
?almafzuu9atu nafsahaa
bayna ?almutanaazi9iina/ (S)

d. the idea of distribution

SE

SA

They shared the money
between them.

/çassamuu ?almaala (fiimaa)
baynahum/ (S)

e. to suggest a reciprocal or mutual relationship

SE

A quarrel arose between
the two brothers.

SA

/naʃaba nizaa9un bayna
ʔalʔaxawayni/ (S)

f. to suggest co-operation or combined effort

SE

They found that they hadn't
five dinars between them.

SA

/wajaduu biʔan laysa
ladayhim xamsa danaaniir/ (D)

Beyond

no exact equivalent

a. farther

SE

Why he did it is beyond
my comprehension.

SA

/laaʔastatii9u ʔan ʔastaw9iba
sababa 9amalihi lahaa/ (D)

b. above or out of the reach of

SE

His conduct has been beyond
criticism.

SA

/ʔinaa mustawaa tasarrufihi
huwa ʔarfa9u min ʔan
yuntaqad/ (D)

c. more than

SE

There weren't beyond
twenty people present.

SA

/laayaziidu 9adadu
ʔalhaadiriina 9alaa
ʔal9iʃriin/ (D)

d. greater than

SE

She has intelligence beyond
ordinary.

SA

/ladayhaa ma9rifatan ʔakøaru
min ʔaltabii9i/ (D)

By

no exact equivalent

a. not later than

SE

We have to be home by 10.

SA

/9alaynaa ʔan nakuuna

fii buyuutinaa bihuduudi
 ?al9aa?irati/ (D)

b. to express the idea of doing

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
They decided to travel	/qarraruu ?alsafara	
<u>by</u> night.	<u>laylan/fii</u> ?allayli/	(D)

c. to denote an instrument

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
He was killed <u>by</u> a knife.	/cutila <u>bimaddiyatin/</u>	(S)

d. through the means of

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
Our houses are lighted	/tuqaa?u buyuutinaa <u>bi/</u>	
<u>by</u> electricity.	<u>biwaasitati</u> ?alkahrabaa?/	(S)

e. to the extent of

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
They lost the match <u>by</u>	/xasiruu ?almubaaraata	
one goal.	<u>bihadafin</u> waahidin/	(S)

f. to name something or somebody on whose name an oath is sworn

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
He often swears <u>by</u> Almighty	/yaqsimu <u>bi</u> ?allaahi	
God.	?al9a?iimi daa?iman/	(S)

g. to express dimension

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
The carpet is three yards	/hajmu ?alsijaadati	
<u>by</u> four.	øalaaøatu ?atru9in	
	<u>fii</u> ?arba9in/	(D)

h. to denote a series or a succession, consisting of so many, or so much, at a time

SE

Day by day, he applied
himself to the task until
it was finished.

SA

/yawman ba9da yawm, bataala
juhdahu fii ?al9amali
?ilaa ?an ?intahaa/ (D)

i. to denote amounts, quantities, or numbers in which
things are sold or bought

SE

Eggs are sold by the dozen.

SA

/yubaa9u ?albaydu
bi?aldarzani/ (S)

j. on the basis of

SE

It is unwise to judge by
appearance.

SA

/laysa min ?alhikmati
?an tahkuma 9alaa ?alnaasi
bima9aahiri/ (S)

k. to express the meaning "consequent on"

SE

The meeting will be held
in the school hall, by
permission of the
headteacher.

SA

/sayu9qadu ?al?ijtimaa9u
fii qaa9ati ?almdrasati
bimuwafaqati ?almudiiri/ (S)

Down

/?asfala/?ilaa ?asfali/

from a further point of time to a nearer point

SE

There has been a chapel here
down all the years my family
has lived in this house.

SA

/kaana hunaaka ma9badan
tiilata ?alsanawaati ?allati
9aa9athaa 9aa?ilatii fii
haataa ?albayti/ (D)

Facing

/muqaabila/qubaalata/?izaa?a/

meeting

SE

I heard about the many

SA

/sami9tu bi?alma9aakili

problems facing them.

?allatii qaabalathum/
waajahathum/

(S)

For

/laam/

a. duration of time

SE

SA

We haven't seen him for
four weeks.

a. /lam narahum li?arba9ati
?asaabii9/ (S)

b. /lam narahum muntu

?arba9ati ?asaabiii9/ (D)

b. a point of time

SE

SA

We have arranged the meeting
for two o'clock.

/laqad rattabnaa ?al-
?ijtimaa9a lilsaa9ati
?aløaaniyati/

(S)

c. on the occasion of

SE

SA

All the churches hold
special services for
Christmas.

/kulli ?alkanaa?isi turattibu
tuquusan xaassatan li9iidi
ra?si ?alsanati/

(S)

d. the idea of benefit or advantage or the reverse

SE

SA

This medicine is good for her.

/haataa dawaauun jayyidun
lahaa/

(S)

e. purpose, aim, intention

SE

SA

She went for a walk.

/tahabat litatajawwala/

(S)

f. result

SE

SA

We have had all our troubles
for nothing.

/?inna kulli ma|aakilinaa
laalifay?/

(D)

g. some kind of service rendered to a person, organization, cause, etc.

SE

They gave their lives for
their country.

SA

/wahabuu hayaatihim
libilaadihim/ (S)

i. in favour of

SE

Are you for the motion or
against it?

SA

/hal ?anta ma9a ?almuqtarahi
?aw diddahu? (D)

m. ratio or proportion

SE

They have built one
house for every two
they demolished.

SA

/banuu baytan 9an kulli
?i9nayn hadamuu/ (D)

n. affirmation

SE

The weather is cold enough
for snow.

SA

./?inaa buruudatu ?aljawwi
kaafiyatun liyakuuna
hunaaka øaljun/ (S)

o. the meaning expressed by "it is", "this is", "that is", etc.

SE

She has won the prize for
the third time.

SA

/rabi^hat ?aljaa?izata
lilmarrati ?aløaaliøati/ (S)

From

/min/

a. the earlier of two dates or times which mark the beginning and the end of a period

SE

The library is open from
9 to 5.

SA

/takuunu ?almaktabatu
maftuu^hatan min ?altaasi9ati
?ilaa ?alxaamisati/ (S)

b. the material out of which something is made

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
Wine is made <u>from</u> grapes.	/yusna9u ?alxamru <u>min</u>	
	?al9inabi/	(S)

c. the lower figure of two extremes in statements of time, price, distance, etc.

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
The prices of houses range	/tataraawahu ?as9aaru	
<u>from</u> 30.000 to 60.000	?albuyuuti <u>min</u> 30.000	
dinars.	?ilaa 60.000 dinaaran/	(S)

d. removal or subtraction

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
If you take 2 <u>from</u> 6,	/?itaa tarahta 4 <u>min</u> 6	
2 remain.	sayabqaa 2/	(S)

e. the grounds of a deduction

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
<u>From</u> what I know of him,	/min ma9rifati lahu laayumkinu	
I do not think he is a	?an yakuuna huwa ?aljaxsu	
suitable person for the	?almunaasibu lihaataa	
position.	?almanabi/	(S)

f. the cause or motive for an occurrence

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
The two explorers died <u>from</u>	/tuwiffiya ?almunaqqibuuna	
exposure to the cold.	<u>min</u> jiddati ?albardi/	(S)

g. protection from danger, threat, menace, etc.

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
He saved a child <u>from</u>	/?anqata ?altifla <u>min</u>	
drowning.	?algaraqi/	(S)

h. difference or comparison

SE

We could not distinguish
one from the other.

SA

/Laayumkinunaa ?an nufarriqa
haataa min taak/ (S)

i. the repetition of an action, movement, etc.

SE

The news passed from mouth
to mouth.

SA

/tasarrabat ?al?axbaaru
min jaxsin li?aaxara/ (S)

In/fii/baa?/

a. a period of time throughout the whole of which, or
within which, something takes place

SE

We should be able to complete
the work in five days.

SA

/9alaynaa ?an nukmila
?al9amala bixamsati
?ayyaamin/ (S)

b. lapse of time by reference to a point at the end of a
specified period

SE

The train will be here in
ten minutes.

SA

/sayakuunu ?alqitaaru hunaa
xilaala 9afrati daqaa?iqin/ (D)

c. external physical environment

SE

They lost themselves in
the fog.

SA

/?adaa9uu tariiqahum fii
?aldabaabi/ (S)

d. external circumstances, or non-material
conditions

SE

He spent the last few years
of his life in poverty.

SA

/qadaa sanawaati hayaatahu
?al?axiirati bifuqrin/ (S)

e. bodily, physical or mental condition

SE

She was in great distress.

SA

/kaanat fii huznin

{adiidin/ (S)

f. a printed, written or oral context where something occurs or is to be found

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
I read it <u>in</u> the <u>Times</u> .	/qara?tuhaa <u>fii</u>	
	?altaayimz/	(S)

g. an activity which one is pursuing or by which one is occupied

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
His whole life was spent	/qadaa kulla hayaatahu	
<u>in</u> helping others	bimusaa9adati	
	?al?aaxariin/	(S)

h. an attitude of mind

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
They seem to be <u>in</u> agreement	a. /yabduu ?annahum <u>fii</u>	
on the matter.	wifaaqin 9alaa haatihi	
	.?almas?alati/	(S)
	b. yabduu ?annahum <u>9alaa</u>	
	wifaaqin fii haatihi .	
	?almas?alati/	(D)

i. a characteristic of one's conduct or of an activity one performs

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
Everyone seems <u>in</u> a hurry.	/yabduu ?annahum <u>fii</u>	
	9ajalatin/	(S)

j. range, scope or limit

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
It is not <u>in</u> my power to	/laysa <u>bi</u> ?istitaa9atii	
do that.	?an ?a9mala taalika/	(S)

k. membership of, or inclusion in, a group or organization or profession

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
My eldest brother is <u>in</u> the	/?inna ?axii ?alkabiira	
navy.	<u>fii</u> ?albahriyyati/	(S)

l. the meaning "in respect of" or "as regards"

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
They are quite reasonable	/?innahum muta9aqqiluuna	
<u>in</u> price.	<u>fii</u> ?as9aarihim/	(S)

m. referring to a person's character

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
He has no malice <u>in</u> him.	/laayuujadu hiqdun <u>fii</u>	
	nafsihi/	(S)

n. the material of which something is made

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
You can get these dresses	/yumkinuka ?an tahsal 9alaa	
<u>in</u> silk.	haatihi ?albadlaati	
	masnuu9atun <u>min</u> maaddati	
	. ?alhariiri/	(D)

o. the idea "in the form of"

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
They stood <u>in</u> a queue.	/waqafuu <u>fii</u> saffin/	(S)

p. division or grouping

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
The eggs were packed <u>in</u>	/ruzima ?albaydu <u>fii</u>	
dozens.	daraazina/	(S)

q. cause

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
I rejoiced <u>in</u> his success.	/farihtu <u>binajaahihi</u> /	(S)

r. the meaning "by way of"

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
He said nothing <u>in</u> reply to	/lam yaqul Jay?an jawaaban	

my question.

9alaa su?aalii/

(D)

s. suggestion of conditions that have arisen or that may arise

SE

In such a case, I can do nothing.

SA

/fii haatihi ?alhaalati
laa?astatii9u ?an ?a9mala
[ay?an/

(S)

In front of
ahead in time

/?amaama/

SE

We have a difficult task
in front of us.

SA

/hunaaka 9amalun [aaqqun
?amaamanaa/

(S)

Inside

/daaxila/

a. within a specified period of time

SE

I shall be back inside
an hour.

SA

/s?a9uudu xilaala
saa9atin/

(D)

b. within the limits of

SE

Inside their party, there is
a disagreement on important
matters of policy.

SA

/hunaaka ?ixtilaafaatun
9alaa masaa?ila siyaasiyyatin
daaxila hizbihim/

(S)

Into

no exact equivalent

a. to indicate change from one form or state to
another

SE

Water may change into ice.

SA

/rubbamaa yatahawwalu
?almaa?u ?ilaa øaljin/

(D)

b. to denote the meaning "examine" or "discuss"

SE

We cannot go into all
the details now.

SA

/laayumkinunaa ?an nadxula
fii kulli ?altafaasiili
?al?aana/

(D)

c. put something on

SE

She changed into her best
dress.

SA

/?irtadat ?afdala
malaabisihaa/

(D)

d. store

SE

The money will be paid
into a bank account.

SA

/sayuuda9u ?almaalu fii
?alhisaabi ?almasrafi/

(D)

e. the period of one's life

SE

She must be into her thirties
by now.

SA

/yajib ?an takuunu fii
-/aløalaaøiin ?al?aana/

(D)

f. being interested in and liking it very much

SE

I am really into jazz
these days.

SA

/?anaa muula9un fii ?aljaazi
haatihi ?al?ayyaami/

(D)

g. start working in a particular career, field
or profession

SE

I'd like to move into
marketing.

SA

/?uhibbu ?an ?antaqila 2ilaa
?alsuuqi/

(D)

Near (to)

/qurba/

a. closeness in time(a) or age(b)

SE

a. It must be getting near

SA

/yajib ?an takuuna qad

dinner-time.

2:qtarabat min waqti
?a19a|aa?i/

(S)

b. He must be getting near retiring age.

/yajib ?an yakuuna qad
?iqtaraba min 9umrihi
 ?altaqaa9udi/

(S)

b. followed by an adjective, to express approach
or proximity

SE

SA

Your answer is nowhere near right.

/laayumkinu ?an yakuuna
jawaabuka gariibun
?ilaa ?alsahhi/

(S)

c. followed by a gerund, to express the idea of approach to a specified activity

SE

SA

We were near giving up the search, when we came upon a clue.

/kunnaa 9alaa wafaki ?an
natruka ?albahøa 9indamaa
wajadnaa hallan/

(D)

Next (to)

no exact equivalent

a. nearly

SE

SA

It is next (to) impossible.

/hiya ?agrabu ?ilaa
?almustahiil/

(D)

b. immediately after

SE

SA

The Lord Mayor comes first,
and next (to) him the Town
Clerk.

/ya?tii ?almuhaafidu
?awwalan wamin ba9dihi
mudiiru ?albaladiyyati/

(D)

Of

/9an/

a. after within to denote time

SE

He died within a few days
of his nineteenth
birthday.

SA

/tuwiffiya ba9da 9iddati
?ayyaamin min 9iidi
miilaadihi ?altis9iin/ (D)

b. regularity or a general practice

SE

We usually go to church
of a Sunday.

SA

/daa?iman maa nathabu
?ilaa kaniisati yawma
?al?ahhadi/ (D)

c. origin or source

SE

He comes of a good stock.

SA

/huwa min ?aslin jayyid/ (D)

d. deprivation or separation

SE

He deprived her of her
living.

SA

/haramahaa min 9ii/satihaa/ (D)

e. possession

SE

The roof of the house
must be mended.

SA

/yajib tasliihu saqfa
?albayti/ (D)

f. quality

SE

She is a woman of
determination.

SA

/hiya ?imra?atun tuu
9aziimatin/ (D)

g. the meaning "concerning"

SE

He told me a story of
his adventures.

SA

/?axbaranii qissatan
9aa mugaamaraatihi/ (S)

h. cause

SE

He died of wounds.

SA

/maata min ?aljiraahi/ (D)

i. the material of which something is made

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
Her dress is made <u>of</u>	/?inaa badlatahaa	
silk.	masnuu9atun <u>min</u>	
	?alhariiri/	(D)

j. partition

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
He took one <u>of</u> my books.	/?axata waahidan <u>min</u>	
	kutubii/	(D)

k. agency

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
That is the work <u>of</u> an enemy.	/haataa 9amalun	
	li9aduwwin/	(D)

l. the idea of apposition or identity

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
Very few people live in	/hunaaka qaliilun min	
the City <u>of</u> London.	?alnaasi yaskunuu (<u>fii</u>)	
	lenden/	(D)

m. contents

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
The glass is full <u>of</u> water.	/?alqadahu mamluu?un	
	bi?almaa?i/	(D)

On /9alaa/

a. time (used only for specific days)

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
He will come <u>on</u> Sunday.	/saya?tii yawma	
	?al?ahhadi/	(D)

b. the idea of one thing or one action following immediately after another, or being almost simultaneous with it

SESA

On hearing the crash, he
rushed out of the house.

/haala samaa9ihi bi?alsadmati
xaraja min ?albayti/ (D)

c. reason, condition or grounds

SESA

On his doctor's advice, he
took a month's holiday.

/hasba nasiihati tabiibihi
?axafa ?ijaazatan limuddati
[ahrin/ (D)

d. about or concerning, in relation to the subject of a
book, article, talk, lecture, etc.

SESA

There is a lecture on poetry.

/hunaaka muhaadaratan fii
?alji9ri/ (D)

e. the basis of an arrangement or a transaction

SESA

The car is on hire to
a film company.

/?almarkabatu mu?ajjaratun
li[arikati ?aflaamin/ (D)

f. an objective relationship between the noun or pronoun
that follows on and the one that precedes it

SESA

The bully had no mercy on
his victims.

/laysa liltawri rahmatun
9alaa dahaayaahu/ (S)

g. the sense "at the expense of"

SESA

The next round of drinks is
on me.

/satakuunu ?almarratu
?alqaadimatu 9alayya/ (S)

h. the sense "connected with"

SESA

He is on the council.

/huwa mahsuubun 9alaa
?albaladiyyati/ (S)

i. the sense "employed in"

SE

SA

He is on a job in the
North Sea.

/huwa fii mihnatin fii
?albahri ?alfimaali/

(D)

j. the idea of "dependence"

SE

SA

He lives on the State.

/ya9iifu 9alaa hisaabi
?aldawlati/

(S)

k. followed by "the + verb", used as a noun to suggest
the idea expressed by the present participle

SE

SA

Keep the kettle on the boil.

/da9 ?alwi9aa?a yaglii/

(D)

l. followed by "the + adjective" to make a phrase
expressive of an adverbial sense

SE

SA

I will tell you on the quiet.

/sa?uxbiruka bihuduu?in/

(D)

Onto

no exact equivalent

a. to introduce a new subject

SE

SA

The conversation shifts
onto art.

/?intaqala ?alhadiiu
2ilaa ?alfanni/

(D)

b. to start a new activity

SE

SA

I want to come onto that
in a minute.

/?uriidu ?an ?abda?a bitaaka
ba9da daqiiqatin/

(D)

c. the person towards whom an action or emotion
is directed

SE

SA

The education of the village
boys has been forced onto us.

/?inna tarbiyata ?awlaadu
?alqaryati qad furidat

9alaynaa/

(D)

d. something or someone becomes included as a part
of a list or group of people

SESA

There are extra workers who
will come onto the labour
market.

/hunaaka 9ummaalun ?aaxaruun
saya?tuuna lil9amali fii
?alsuuqi/

(D)

Out of

no exact equivalent

a. the meaning of beyond

SESA

He ran away and was soon
out of sight.

/haraba wa?asbaha xaarija
madaa ?alru?yati/

(D)

b. a source

SESA

The preacher took as his
text some words out of the
Bible.

/?istanada ?alwaa9idu
fii mawduu9ihi 9alaa
ba9di kalimaatin min
?al?injiili/

(D)

c. the idea of "not having" or "no longer having"

SESA

They were out of milk now.

/hum biduuni haliibin
?al?aana/

(D)

d. the idea "from among"

SESA

Out of all the people present,
only two spoke in favour of
the proposal.

/min bayni kulli ?alhaadiriin
?i9nayn faqat takallamuu
bi9aalihi ?almuqatrahi/

(D)

e. the idea of transformation of one thing into another
or the material from which something is made

SEFlour is made out of wheat.SA/yu9malu ?altahiinu min

?alqamhi/

(D)

f. motive

SEShe did it out of spite.SA/9amilat taalika bidaafi9i

?alhiqdi/

(D)

Outside

/xaarija/

a. not happening during a particular period of time

SE

You will have to do it

outside office hours.SA

/9alayka ?an ta9mala

taalika xaarija saa9aati

?aldawaami/

(S)

b. beyond the limits of

SENo one outside the family

knew of the affair.

SA

/laayuujadu ?ahadun

xaarija ?al9aa?ilati

9arifa taalika/

(S)

c. other than

SEHe has few hobbies outside

swimming.

SA

/ladayhi hiwaayaatin ?uxraa

bi?al?idaafati ?ilaa

?alsibaahati/

(D)

Over

/fawqa/

a. through (a period of time)

SEOver the next two months,

they were very careful.

SA

/fii ?aljahrayni ?alqaadimayni

sayakuunu ?akøara

diqqatin/

(D)

b. while one is having something

SE

SA

We can discuss the matter
over dinner.

/sanunaaqi|u ?almas?alata
9alaa ?al9a|aa?i/

(D)

c. above in status or position

SE

SA

A new manager has been
appointed over us.

/laqad 9uyyina mudiirun
jadiidun 9alaynaa/

(D)

d. higher than in number, amount or quality

SE

SA

Over two hundred people were
present at the ceremony.

/hadara ?al?ihtifaala
?akøaru min mi?atay
|axs/

(D)

e. in doing something

SE

SA

They are taking a very long
time over a simple job.

/yastagriquuna waqtan
tawiilan li9amali
|ay?in basiitin/

(D)

f. about; concerning

SE

SA

The quarrel was over
a small child.

/kaana ?al|iijaaru 9alaa
tiflin sagiirin/

(D)

Past

no exact equivalent

a. beyond in time

SE

SA

It was past midnight when
we arrived home.

/kaanat ba9da muntasafi
?allayli 9indamaa
wasalnaa ?albayta/

(D)

b. beyond in condition

SE

SA

The old man is past work.

/laqad tajaawaza ?alrajulu

?al9ajuuzu sinna

?al9amali/

(D)

Through

/xilaala/

a. the idea "from the beginning to the end of a specified period of time"

SE

SA

We preferred to travel
through the night.

/nufaddilu ?alsafara xilaala
?allayli/ (S)

b. the meaning "by means of" or "by way of" an intermediary

SE

SA

Inflammable articles must not
be sent through the post.

/yajib ?an laatursalu
?almawaadu ?alqaabilatu
lil?ifti9aali biwaasitati
?albariidi/

(D)

c. the idea of subjecting someone to the various stages of a test or ordeal

SE

SA

The product is put through
many tests before it is
finally approved as
satisfactory.

/marra ?al?intaaaju
bi?imtihaanaatin 9adiidatin
qabla ?an yubatta nihaa?iyyan
fii salaahiyyatihi/

(D)

d. the idea of thoroughness or completeness

SE

SA

I have been through this
pile of papers but the
missing letter is not there.

/kuntu ?abhaøu fii haatihi
?alruzami min ?al?awraaqi
walaakinni lam ?a9øura 9alaa
?alrisaalati/

(D)

e. cause

SE

SA

He became ill through
overwork.

/ʔasbaḥa mariidan min
kuʔrati ʔal9amali/

(D)

f. the idea of penetration by vision

The house could easily
be seen through the mist.

/mina ʔalsahli ruʔyatu
ʔalbayti min xilaali/
xilaala ʔaldabaabi/

(S)

Throughout

no exact equivalent

during the whole of some specified period of time

SE

SA

It poured with rain
throughout the night.

/kaanat taṣubbu maṭaran
tuula/tiwaala ʔallayli/

(D)

To

. /ʔilaa/laam/

a. in telling the time before

SE

SA

It is five to six.

/ʔalsaa9atu ʔalsaadisatu
ʔillaa xamsu daqaaʔiqin/

(D)

b. the result of a change

SE

SA

He drank himself to death.

/ʔariba hattaa ʔalmawti/

(D)

c. a person or a thing to which an activity is directed

SE

SA

I will speak to your father
about the matter.

/saʔataḥaddaʔu ʔilaa/
liʔabiika ḥawla
ʔalmasʔalati/

(S)

d. the notion of extent, or the meaning "to the point of"

SE

SA

He drained the cup to the
last drop.

a. /ʃariba ʔalkaʔsa ʔilaa/
liʔaaxiri qatratin/ (S)

b. /ʃariba ʔalkaʔsa hattaa
ʔaaxira qatratin/ (D)

e. the meaning "from the point of view of" or "so far as
someone or something is concerned"

SE

SA

To a child, any unfamiliar
noise may be frightening.

/kulla sawtin gariibin
rubbamaa yakuunu maɗdara
xawfin liltifli/ (S)

f. the result of addition, subtraction,
reduction, etc.

SE

SA

The price has been reduced to
fifty dinars.

/xuffida ʔalsi9ru ʔilaa/
lixamsiina diinaarin/ (S)

g. the idea of having as characteristic, a quality,
or a part

SE

SA

You can get this box with
a lid to it.

/yumkinukaka ʔan taʔxuta
sunduugan wagitaaʔuhu
9alayhi/ (D)

h. the idea of "resulting in"

SE

SA

To our surprise, the train
was early for once.

/lidahʃatinaa faqad jaaʔa
ʔalqiɽaaru mubakkiran
lilmarrati ʔalʔuulaa/ (S)

i. the object of a wish, mainly in toasts

SE

SA

Let us drink to the health
of the bride.

/da9naa naʃribu nuxba
sihhati ʔal9ariisi/ (D)

j. to give a precise application to a preceding adjective

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
The bridge is closed <u>to</u>	/ʔugliqa ʔaljisru <u>likuʔrati</u>	
heavy traffic.	ʔalzihaami/	(D)

k. in an adjectival sense after certain adjectives, to denote the person affected by the notion expressed in the adjective

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
She was always kind <u>to</u>	/kaanat 9atuufatun <u>9alaa</u>	
children.	ʔalʔaʔfaali daaʔiman/	(D)

Towards	/nahwa/tijaaha/ biʔittijaahi/
---------	----------------------------------

a. near as regards time, age, etc.

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
She must be getting on	/hiya taqtaribu ʔalʔaana	
<u>toward(s)</u> fifty.	<u>min</u> 9umri ʔalxamsiin/	(D)

b. in the direction of some object or purpose which one has in view

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
We will put the prize	/sanada9u jaaʔizata	
money <u>toward(s)</u> paying	ʔalnuquudi 9alaa ʔasaasi	
off the mortgage <u>on</u>	daf9i ʔalrihaani ʔalmawjuuda	
the house.	<u>9alaa</u> ʔalbayti/	(S)

c. with regard to

<u>SE</u>	<u>SA</u>	
Her attitude <u>toward(s)</u> me	/laqad tagayyara taʔarrufahu	
has been changed.	<u>nahwii/tijaahii</u>	(S)

Under /tahta/

a. subject to the control or authority of

SE

SA

He has nearly fifty men
under him.

/hunaaka maayuqaaribu
?alxamsiina rajulan
tahta saytaratihi/

(S)

b. less than

SE

SA

Only people under forty
need apply.

/yahtaaju man hum tahta
sinni ?al?arba9iin
litaqdiimi ?awraaqahum/

(S)

c. by the authority of

SE

SA

The prosecution was brought
under the Obscene
Publications Act.

/Suqidat ?almuhaakamatu
wifqan limaaddati ?alna?ri
?algayr mas?uul/

(D)

d. subjected to

SE

SA

He has been under arrest.

/kaana rahna ?al?i9tiqaali/

(D)

e. indicating a classification, heading, entry, etc. in a
list, book or index

SE

SA

You will find these two books
listed under "literature".

/satajid haafayni
?alkitaabayni tahta
9inwaani ?adab/

(S)

f. indicating a "cover" of one's identity

SE

SA

The detective gained admission
to the club under the disguise
of an army officer.

/caxala rajulu ?al?amni
?ilaa ?alnaadii bisafati
taabitu jay?in/

(D)

g. in process of

SEThe road was under repair.SA/kaana ?atariiqu tahta
?altasliihi/

(S)

Within

no exact equivalent

a. not exceeding (in relation to time)

SEI shall be back within
an hour.SA/sa?a9uudu xilaala
saa9atin/

(D)

b. not beyond

SETry to live within your
means.SA/haawil ?an ta9ii/a 9alaa
cadari ?istitaa9atika/

(D)

Appendix B

.

Parts of the Test

P1: Read the following passage carefully and only from the list provided below, fill in the blanks with the appropriate prepositions. you can use some of the prepositions more than once. Put an (x) if a preposition is unnecessary. You may find it helpful to score out the prepositions as you use them:

aboard; about; above; across; after; against; ahead of; along; alongside; amid(st); among; around; at; before; behind; below; between; beyond; by; down; facing; for; from; in; inside; into; near; next(to); of; off; on; onto; opposite; out of; over; past; through; throughout; to; towards; under; up:

One day, we made up our minds to go on a picnic (1)..... an island called Wemsbay. The island was about fifty miles south (2)..... Glasgow. To get there, we had to take a train and a ferry. We bought our tickets (3)..... Glasgow Central Station. The man who gave us our tickets told us that the train would leave (4)..... Wemsbay at 10 a.m. (5)..... platform 3. As we were walking (6)..... the platform, we saw another Iraqi family joining the same queue. We greeted them and stood (7)..... them (8)..... the queue.

When the train arrived (9)..... the platform, all the people got (10)..... it. My family all sat (11)..... the same table. My wife sat (12)..... me and my two sons sat (13)..... the seats (14)..... us. My young daughter sat (15)..... her mother and me. The train went (16)..... many charming villages and stopped (17)..... many stations

where the people could lean (18)..... the windows to have a good look at the sights there. While we were on our way, we saw many farmers working (19)..... their farms.

Suddenly, we heard the voice of the driver telling us that we were within two miles (20)..... our station. We left the train and began wandering (21)..... the town trying to see everything there. After twenty minutes, we went back to the place where we could get the ferry. The ferry stopped (22)..... the quay and one of the crew asked the people to go (23)..... the steps (24)..... it. We were just in time because as soon as we had stepped (25)..... the ferry, it began to move.

We were quite surprised to see what there was (26)..... the ferry since it was our first experience of such boats. The ferry consisted of three decks. (27)..... us was the upper deck and (28)..... us was the lower deck, which was reserved only for vehicles. We went upstairs to have a good look at the sea. One of the crew was standing (29)..... a crowd of people telling them something about the journey. We heard him say that it would take us two hours to go (30)..... the sea (31)..... the island.

Most of the people were leaning (32)..... the ferry rails looking at the beautiful sight of birds diving (33).....the sea looking for their food. One of the birds was flying about a mile (34)..... the ferry as if it were directing us (35)..... the island. Just before we arrived, a search was made (36)..... the ferry for a missing child who was at last found (37)..... one of the toilets. As we came (38)..... the island, we saw a lighthouse just (39) the coast.

The first place to visit (40)..... the island was the museum which was built (41) a pleasant wood. To get there, we had to walk (42) the main road of the island. We walked (43)..... many nice buildings (44)..... which was the hotel where we were going to spend our afternoon. As we entered (45)..... the museum, we became fascinated by its marvellous treasures, some of which belonged to ancient Arab civilizations. As we went (46)..... the building, we saw some of the children happily playing football (47) the grass.

After visiting many places, we went (48)..... our hotel to take a short rest. The room which was booked for us was (49)..... the second floor. It was a small neatly arranged room(50) the sea. After a while, lunch was set (51)..... us and we all sat (52)..... the table to have it. While we were eating our lunch, my young daughter pulled the cloth which was spread(53) the table and some of the dishes fell(54) the table and broke. Then we went (55)..... the beach to pass some time (56)..... the sea. There, the children enjoyed themselves by pulling each other (57)..... the warm sand and then jumping (58)..... the sea to clean their bodies.

At 8 p.m. we left the island and all its beauty (59)..... us. The last sight we saw was the sun disappearing (60)..... the horizon. The idea of going back (61)..... home was unappealing.

P2: Choose the number of the sentence and the letter of the correct answer. The letter (x) indicates that a preposition is not needed:

1. The cat jumped the mantelpiece.
(a.on b.of c.by d.onto)
2. They decided to build another bridge the Tigris.
(a.above b.across c.over d.on)
3. They live in that village the hills.
(a.in b.between c.at d. among)
4. They have just gone the ship.
(a.of b.on c.at d.aboard)
5. Tom was a quick runner so he soon got the others.
(a.before b.across c.ahead of d.above)
6. Take your hands your pockets.
(a.from b.in c.out of d.at)
7. We had an accident within a mile the station.
(a.across b.of c.from d.by)
8. They entered a police station.
(a.to b.x c.onto d.into)
9. We saw many farmers working their farms.
(a.above b.in c. on d.over)
10. Old people prefer to stay home.
(a.x b.in c.of d.at)
11. She dived the swimming pool.
(a.at b.into c. in d.on)

12. The weather forecast says that there is thick cloud
the north of England.

(a.over b.about c.on d.above)

13. Iraq lies Syria, Jordan and Turkey.

(a.on b.in c.among d.between)

14. I found the missing spoon the sand.

(a.in b.from c.inside d.in)

15. His bicycle was leaning the tree.

(a.against b.over c.above d.on)

16. It took us half an hour to swim the river to the
other side.

(a.over b.across c.in d.on)

17. She lives Oakfield Avenue.

(a. x b.in c.on d.at)

18. The vessel anchoredthe quay.

(a.along b.on c.alongside d.over)

19. We wandered the country looking for him.

(a.at b.around c.on d.in)

20. The lake was frozen, so we walked the ice.

(a.for b.to c.across d. through)

21. I am going to leave my country next month.

(a.for b.to c.at d.of)

22. The picture fell the wall.

(a.from b.of c.off d.from on)

23. We got our lunch the restaurant.

(a.about b.in c. at d.for)

24. The glass was broken because of a stone thrown it.

(a.on b.to c.into d.at)

25. The missile went the air.

(a.inside b.of c.in d.through)

26. He lives the first floor.

(a.in b.on c.at d.x)

27. She walked silently the corridor to the meeting hall.

(a.on b.along c.throughout d.in)

28. A large hospital was built that corner.

(a.on b.in c.around d.through)

29. When we last saw him, he was climbing slowly the fence.

(a.across b.above c.over d.through)

30. The sun disappeared the horizon.

(a.inside b.under c.over d.in)

31. She lives 73 Park Avenue.

(a.on b.in c.x d.at)

32. How long would it take us to go this forest.

(a.in b.inside c.through d.across)

33. She has a gold chain her neck.

(a.in b.about c.at d.on)

34. He walked the room smiling strangely.

(a.across b.in c.through d.throughout)

35. We are now home.

(a.of b.x c.in d.off)

36. A description of the wanted man was circulated the country.

(a.through b.throughout c.on d.at)

37. Basrah is about 300 miles south Baghdad.

(a.x b.from c.of d.at)

38. He always arrives early his office.

(a.at b.in c.on d.to)

39. Go quickly the stairs when you discover a fire.

(a.over b.in c.via d.aboard)

40. He prefers to sit his table all the time.

(a.in b.on c.at d.above)

41. This train passes Crewe and Carlisle.

(a.throughout b.in c.through d.within)

42. They went home two hours ago.

(a.to b.at c.x d.across)

43. There are many tall trees the road to the village.

(a.on along b.above c.in d.along)

P3) Read the following Arabic sentences carefully and than fill in the blanks with appropriate English prepositions of place relation which can denot the same meanings conveyed by the Arabic ones:

١. صعد الناس على السفينة جميعا .
1. All the people went --- the ship.
٢. بني جسر اخر فوق النهر .
2. Another dridge was built --- the river.
٣. لا تتكأ على الجدار .
3. Don't lean --- the wall.
٤. هناك اشجار كثيرة على طول الطريق .
4. There are many trees ---- the road.
٥. كان الضابط يركض امام الجنود .
5. The officer was running the soldiers.
٦. رأينا باخرة واقفة بمحاذاة الرصيف .
6. We saw a ship stopping --- the quay.
٧. بنى صديقي دارا بين الاشجار .
7. My friend built a house--- the trees.
٨. يفضل المدير الجلوس على مكتبه طول الوقت .
8. The manager prefers to sit --- his table all the time.
٩. تقع دائرة البريد في ذلك المنعطف .
9. The post office is --- that corner.
١٠. سرنا في المدينة بحثا عن الصبي المفقود .
10. We walked --- the twon looking for the missing

child.

١١. كانت سهى تدرس في جامعة الموصل.

11. Suha was studying --- Mosul University.

١٢. لا تذهب بعيدا عن ذلك المكان.

12. Don't go --- that place.

١٣. اخرج يدك من جيبك.

13. Take your hand --- your pocket.

١٤. ذهب الولد الى بيته متاخرا

14. The boy went --- home late.

١٥. رمت البنت حصة على الزجاجاة.

15. Thre girl threw a stone --- the glass.

١٦. هناك حديقة كبيرة خلف بيتهم.

16. There is a large garden --- their house.

١٧. سنغادر الى البصرة غدا.

17. We are leaving --- basrah tomorrow.

١٨. تسلق القرد الى اعلى الشجرة.

18. The monkey Climbed --- the tree.

١٩. يفضل ابي البقاء في البيت دائما.

19. My father always prefers to stay --- home.

٢٠. ظهرت الشمس من خلال الغيوم.

20. The sun appeared --- the clouds.

٢١. سلوى تصل الى دائرتها مبكرة دائما
21. Salwa often arrives ---her office early.
٢٢. ممرنا بـمدن كثيرة ونحن في طريقنا الى العاصمة.
22. We went --- many towns on our way to the capital.
٢٣. ياتي معظم الطلاب الى مدرستهم عبر الحقول.
23. Most of the pupils came to their school---by the fields.
٢٤. اشترى ابي بيتا جميلا مقابل البحر.
24. My father bought a nice house --- the sea.
٢٥. اُصدمت الطائرة بالاشجار.
25. The plane crashed --- the trees.
٢٦. تبعد بابل ٨٠ ميلا جنوب بغداد.
26. Babylon is 80 miles south --- baghdad.
٢٧. وقع الحادث مسافة ميلين عن المحطة.
27. The accident took place within two miles --- the station
٢٨. سقطت الكتب من على الرفوف.
28. The books fell --- the shelves.
٢٩. لا يمكنك اخذ هذا الكتاب خارج المكتبة.
29. You are not allowed to take this book --- the library.
٣٠. غابت الشمس في الافق.
30. The sun disappeared --- the horizon.

٣١. نزل المطر من خلال السقف.

31. The rain poured --- the ceiling.

٣٢. شاهدنا الصاروخ منطلقا في الهواء.

32. We watched the missile going --- the air.

٣٣. وزعت اوصاف المجرم على كافة انحاء المدينة.

33. The description of the criminal was circulated --- the town.

٣٤. ذهب المتسلقون الى اعلى الجبال.

34. The climbers went --- the mountain.

٣٥. تاتي السفن الى العراق عن طريق الخليج العربي.

35. The ships came to Iraq --- the Arab Gulf.

٣٦. دخل جميع الناس الى البناية.

36. All the people entered --- the buliding.

٣٧. رست السفينة بعيدا عن الساحل.

37. The ship stopped --- the coast.

٣٨. تناول الطلاب وجبة الغذاء في مطعم الجامعة.

38. The student got their lunch --- the university refactory.

٣٩. سار الجنود الى اسفل الجبل.

39. The soldiers walked --- the mounted.

٤٠. كانت الطيور تغوص في الماء بحثا عن الطعام.

40. The birds were diving --- the water looking for their food.

Appendix C

Tables of Errors

We made up our minds to go on a picnic to an island called Wemsbay.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																
			aboard	across	amid(st)	around	at	behind	for	from	inside	into	near	of	on	toward	x	blanks	Total number of errors
290	177	61.03	4	7	2	8	7	3	13	2	3	19	11	3	9	6	3	13	113
			percentage																
			38.97																

Table 25
(Test 1, Item 1)

The island was about fifty miles south of Glasgow.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses															
			about	across	alongside	at	down	for	from	into	near	off	out of	toward	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
290	141	48.62	4	4	5	3	3	2	45	4	16	3	2	17	27	14	149	51.38

Table 26
(Test 1, Item 2)

We got our tickets at Glasgow Central Station.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses														
			aboard	beyond	by	for	from	inside	into	near	inside	on	opposite	to	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
290	4	1.37	2	3	4	12	215	3	8	4	3	5	3	16	8	286	98.63

Table 27
(Test 1, Item 3)

The train would leave for Wemsbay at 10 a.m.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses														Total number of errors	Percentage
			about	after	at	down	from	into	off	on	onto	out of	to	toward	x	blanks		
290	33	11.37	2	7	9	4	22	20	7	7	2	11	94	18	45	9	257	88.63

Table 28
(Test 1, Item 4)

The train would leave from platform 3.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			about	above	across	after	against	along	alongside	amid(st)	at	before	behind	below	beyond	by	for	in	inside	into
290	21	7.24	3	3	7	4	2	6	2	2	43	3	3	2	2	8	3	2	2	7

near	next(to)	of	on	onto	through	to	toward	under	up	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
13	4	2	33	6	5	19	12	3	2	19	47	269	92.76

Table 29
(Test 1, Item 5)

As we were walking toward the platform, we saw another Iraqi family.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			about	above	across	after	ahead of	alongside	among	around	at	behind	below	between	by	facing	in	inside	into	on
290	98	33.79	15	2	13	2	3	6	4	5	11	5	2	2	2	2	3	12	30	30

onto	over	through	up	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
3	3	14	3	3	17	192	66.21

Table 30
(Test 1, Item 6)

We greeted them and stood behind them.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			about	across	ahead of	amid(st)	among	before	between	beyond	by	facing	for	inside	near	of	on	opposite	to	up
290	130	44.82	4	2	7	3	50	4	9	3	7	10	5	3	5	4	3	2	3	10
			other items	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage													
			9	6	14	160	55.18													

Table 31
(Test 1, Item 7)

We stood in the queue.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			about	above	across	after	against	along	alongside	among	at	behind	between	beyond	by	facing	for	from	inside	into
290	147	50.68	2	3	2	2	2	7	3	2	16	3	2	5	2	3	5	4	11	3

near	of	on	out of	through	to	toward	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
8	8	11	3	8	7	4	3	14	143	49.32

Table 32
(Test 1, Item 8)

When the train arrived at the platform,..... .

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			across	ahead of	along	alongside	behind	down	for	from	in	into	near	next(to)	of	off	on	onto	out of	through
290	66	22.75	3	3	2	2	3	8	2	5	6	20	17	4	2	2	14	2	2	4
			to	toward	under	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage											
			80	7	3	19	14	224	77.25											

Table 33
(Test 1, Item 9)

When the train arrived, all the people got aboard it.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			above	across	after	along	alongside	around	at	before	beyond	by	down	facing	in	into	near	next(to)	of	off
290	40	13.79	6	2	5	2	3	4	17	3	3	2	5	3	18	6	8	2	7	2
			on	in front of	out of	over	past	through	to	toward	up	x	blanks	Total number of errors	percentage					
			25	2	8	6	3	5	7	4	8	35	49	250	86.21					

Table 34
(Test 1, Item 10)

My family all sat at the same table.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses														
			above	alongside	behind	by	down	in	inside	into	near	on	onto	over	up	blanks	Total number of errors
290	137	47.24	8	3	6	2	12	10	5	2	7	81	5	5	4	3	153
																	52.67

Table 35
(Test 1, Item 11)

My wife sat next(to) me.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses															
			after	against	along	alongside	amid(st)	among	before	behind	between	beyond	inside	near	on	toward	x	blanks
290	146	50.34	3	9	2	3	2	8	8	62	6	5	4	5	3	5	2	7
			Percentage															
					49.66													

Table 36
(Test 1, Item 12)

My two sons sat on the seats opposite us.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			about	above	against	ahead of	along	alongside	among	around	at	before	behind	between	beyond	facing	from	in front of	inside	into
290	96	33.10	2	2	5	2	3	4	19	6	29	5	11	14	8	9	3	7	5	2

near	next(to)	opposite	over	loward	up	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
6	9	12	13	3	2	13	194	66.90

Table 37
(Test 1, Item 13)

My two sons sat on the seats opposite us.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																		
			after	against	ahead of	among	around	at	before	behind	below	between	beyond	for	from	near	next((to)	of	off	toward	
290	87	30.00	5	8	7	22	6	2	13	40	2	16	3	7	4	5	3	28	2	6	
			x																		
			blanks																		
			Total number of errors																		
			Percentage																		
			5	19	203	70.00															

Table 38
(Test 1, Item 14)

My young daughter sat between her mother and me.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses													
			after	ahead of	among	at	before	behind	beside	beyond	near	on	opposite	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
290	235	81.03	5	4	3	2	5	18	4	2	4	3	2	3	55	18.97

Table 39
(Test 1, Item 15)

The train went through many charming villages

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			across	after	along	alongside	among	around	at	beyond	down	facing	for	from	into	of	on	onlo	out of	throughout
290	93	32.06	59	2	10	7	15	14	4	4	2	2	3	5	12	5	7	2	5	5
			to	toward	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage												
			21	7	2	4	197	67.94												

Table 40
(Test 1, Item 16)

The train stopped at many stations.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			aboard	above	after	ahead of	along	alongside	among	behind	by	down	for	in	inside	into	near	next(to)	of	off
290	122	42.06	2	5	3	3	2	3	6	3	3	2	3	22	5	23	14	2	5	4
			on	onto	out of	past	through	throughout	toward	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage							
			21	3	3	3	7	3	4	3	11	168	57.94							

Table 41
(Test 1, Item 17)

The people could lean out of the windows to have a good look at the sights there.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			about	across	against	ahead of	alongside	among	at	behind	below	beyond	down	facing	for	from	into	near	next(to)	of
290	70	24.13	5	3	3	4	3	4	14	9	4	4	7	4	2	10	3	18	4	4
			off	on	opposite	over	through	throughout	to	loward	under	up	x	blanks	Total number of errors .	Percentage				
			4	12	2	6	20	14	5	9	2	10	18	13	220	75.87				

Table 42

(Test 1, Item 18)

We saw many farmers working on their farms.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																
			about	across	alongside	among	at	below	beyond	by	facing	from	in	inside	into	near	off	onto	out of
290	59	20.34	2	2	5	7	25	2	2	3	2	2	52	38	45	6	3	6	3
			over	through	to	toward	up	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage								
			4	2	4	6	2	2	6	231	79.66								

Table 43
(Test 1, Item 19)

The driver said that we were within two miles of our station.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			aboard	about	above	across	after	against	ahead of	along	alongside	among	around	before	beyond	by	down	for	from	inside
290	10	3.44	4	18	2	5	5	4	5	4	5	2	3	8	5	3	2	4	56	2
			into	near	next((to)	off	on	out of	over	past	through	to	toward	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage			
			3	9	3	4	2	6	5	7	13	4	13	45	29	280	96.56			

Table 44
(Test 1, Item 20)

We left the train and began wandering about the town.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			across	along	alongside	among	at	beyond	down	for	from	in	inside	into	of	off	on	onto	out of	over
290	74	25.51	7	4	5	2	2	3	11	2	2	25	11	17	6	5	8	3	3	5
			through	throughout	to	toward	under	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage									
			3	6	27	27	2	11	19	216	74.49									

Table 45
(Test 1, Item 21)

The ferry stopped alongside the quay.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			aboard	about	above	across	after	against	ahead of	along	among	around	behind	beside	between	beyond	down	facing	in	inside
290	90	68.96	2	2	5	2	2	6	5	6	2	3	5	2	2	4	2	5	18	3

into	near	next(to)	on	onto	opposite	out of	over	through	to	toward	under	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
15	5	4	19	2	6	6	9	2	8	5	3	10	30	200	31.04

Table 46
(Test 1, Item 22)

One of the crew asked the people to go up the steps.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			aboard	about	above	across	along	amid(st)	around	at	behind	by	down	facing	for	from	in	inside	into	near
290	13	4.48	4	4	6	9	8	2	3	3	4	21	17	2	6	2	3	3	9	6
			next(to)	of	on	opposite	out of	over	through	throughout	to	toward	under	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage			
			4	4	19	2	17	7	10	5	53	7	3	6	28	277	95.52			

Table 47
(Test 1, item 23)

One of the crew asked the people to go up the steps onto the ferry.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																
			aboard	above	across	after	ahead of	along	among	around	at	before	behind	below	by	down	facing	for	from
290	32	11.03	6	2	8	5	6	3	3	2	5	6	3	5	5	3	4	12	8

in	inside	near	next(to)	of	on	opposite	out of	over	through	to	under	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
14	4	2	3	12	20	2	3	6	4	9	7	13	.70	258	88.97

Table 48
(Test 1, item 24)

As soon as we had stepped aboard the ferry, it began to move.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																		
			across	alongside	around	below	beyond	down	for	from	in	inside	into	near	of	off	on	out of	past	through	to
290	115	39.65	3	2	6	4	3	17	2	4	7	10	7	2	5	7	5	20	6	7	7
			toward	up	x	blanks	Total number of errors		Percentage												
			8	9	15	16	175		60.35												

Table 49
(Test 1, item 25)

We were quite surprised to see what there was in the ferry.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			about	above	after	against	ahead of	along	alongside	among	around	at	behind	beyond	facing	for	from	into	near	onto
290	128	44.13	5	8	4	3	3	2	4	2	6	10	2	4	6	2	7	21	4	6
			out of	over	through	to	under	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage									
			3	2	3	3	4	21	27	162	55.87									

Table 50
(Test 1, item 26)

Above us was the upper deck.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			aboard	about	after	agains	ahead of	along	amid(st)	among	around	before	behind	below	beside	beyond	by	facing	for	from
290	59	20.34	3	3	8	6	19	2	3	11	6	5	9	10	2	5	6	3	28	4

inside	near	next(of)	of	off	on	opposite	over	to	toward	under	up	other items	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
2	7	5	3	2	2	6	19	3	7	7	6	3	5	21	231	79.66

Table 51
(Test 1, item 27)

..... and below us was the lower deck.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			aboard	about	above	across	after	against	ahead of	among	around	before	behind	between	beyond	by	down	facing	for	inside
290	37	12.75	2	2	8	2	5	2	6	10	7	9	33	3	5	4	15	3	7	3

9	3	2	5	4	2	5	3	3	50	4	37	253	87.25
next(to)	of	on	opposite	over	past	through	to	toward	under	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage

Table 52
(Test 1, item 28)

One of the crew was standing among a crowd of people telling them something about the journey.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			aboard	about	above	after	ahead of	amid(st)	around	at	before	behind	between	beyond	by	down	facing	in	into	of
290	137	47.24	2	2	7	2	11	2	2	3	4	17	6	2	3	5	12	11	3	2
			on	out of	over	through	throughout	to	toward	up	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage						
			13	4	2	7	3	3	4	2	7	12	153	52.76						

Table 53
(Test 1, item 29)

It would take us two hours to go across the sea to the island.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			about	along	alongside	at	by	down	for	from	in	inside	into	near	on	onto	out of	over	past	through
290	30	10.34	2	19	9	12	5	5	4	6	4	5	19	3	6	3	9	6	2	6

throughout	to	towards	up	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
4	97	6	4	6	18	260	89.66

Table 54
(Test 1, item 30)

It would take us two hours to go across the sea to the island.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			across	after	along	alongside	amid(st)	around	at	facing	for	from	in	inside	into	near	next(to)	of	on	opposite
290	47	16.20	6	3	3	8	4	22	10	4	5	9	25	10	10	15	8	37	11	3
			over	through	toward	under	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage										
			3	8	23	3	2	11	243	83.80										

Table 55
(Test 1, item 31)

People were leading over the ferry rails.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			aboard	about	above	across	after	ahead of	alongside	among	around	at	below	beyond	by	down	from	in	inside	into
290	20	6.89	3	10	6	2	2	2	5	4	7	19	4	4	3	7	13	8	8	7

near	of	off	on	onto	opposite	out of	through	throughout	to	toward	under	up	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
8	4	2	40	6	2	9	10	2	14	5	2	6	18	28	270	93.11

Table 56
(Test 1, item 32)

Birds were diving into the sea looking for their food.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			aboard	about	above	across	ahead of	along	alongside	around	at	below	by	down	facing	from	in	inside	near	next(to)
290	45	15.51	4	2	35	7	3	3	4	3	5	6	3	3	3	2	15	10	10	5

of	on	onto	out of	over	through	to	toward	under	up	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
2	14	4	3	31	8	13	5	3	7	16	16	245	84.49

Table 57

(Test 1, item 33)

One of the birds was flying about a mile ahead of the ferry.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																		
			about	above	across	after	along	alongside	amid(st)	among	around	at	before	by	down	for	from	inside	into	of	
290	54	18.62	3	43	2	4	2	5	3	3	4	4	2	5	2	4	15	4	3	10	

on	onto	out of	over	past	through	to	toward	under	up	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
11	2	3	18	2	2	11	19	2	7	14	26	236	81.38

Table 58
(Test 1, item 34)

.....as if it were directing us toward the island.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			about	above	across	after	ahead of	along	alongside	amid(st)	around	at	behind	below	beyond	by	facing	for	from	in
290	133	45.86	2	3	5	3	2	2	4	2	4	8	2	2	2	2	2	3	9	9
			inside	into	near	of	on	onto	opposite	over	through	under	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage				
			3	6	9	6	14	3	7	3	7	3	7	23	157	54.14				

Table 59
(Test 1, item 35)

A search was made throughout the ferry.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			above	alongside	around	at	before	below	by	down	for	from	into	near	of	off	on	onto	opposite	out of
290	71	24.48	3	6	4	7	3	3	19	2	6	11	4	6	32	4	3	2	2	10
			over	through	to	toward	under	up	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage								
			5	2	7	2	10	16	25	25	119	75.52								

Table 60
(Test 1, item 36)

The child was found in one of the toilets.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			aboard	above	after	amid(st)	among	around	at	behind	between	beyond	by	down	facing	from	into	near	next(to)	of
290	90	31.03	5	4	3	5	4	2	13	3	2	5	11	3	3	3	18	3	3	6
			off	on	onto	opposite	out of	over	through	throughout	to	under	up	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage			
			5	13	2	6	9	7	5	2	4	10	4	13	24	200	68.97			

Table 61
(Test 1, item 37)

As we came near the island, we..... .

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			across	alongside	at	between	down	for	from	in	inside	into	next((to)	of	on	onto	past	through	up	other items
290	157	54.14	4	2	8	2	5	4	16	5	2	30	2	2	5	2	4	9	2	2
			x	blanks	Total number of errors		Percentage													
			2	25	133		45.68													

Table 62
(Test 1, item 38)

The first place to visit on the island was the museum.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			aboard	after	alongside	amid(st)	among	at	before	below	beyond	down	facing	for	from	in	inside	into	near	next(to)
290	34	11.27	2	13	4	3	7	19	2	3	2	4	5	3	8	54	11	22	3	2
			of	onto	out of	over	through	to	under	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage							
			11	5	4	3	4	18	3	21	20	256	88.28							

Table 64
(Test 1, item 40)

The museum was built in a pleasant wood.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			against	alongside	among	at	before	below	between	beyond	by	down	facing	from	inside	of	off	on	opposite	through
290	25	8.62	4	3	7	4	3	3	2	3	29	3	2	118	4	28	4	12	4	4

to	toward	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
4	7	5	12	265	91.38

Table 65
(Test 1, item 41)

To get there, we had a walk along the main road.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
				about	aboard	across	ahead of	alongside	amid(st)	among	around	at	between	for	from	in	inside	into	on	through
290	78	26.89	5	10	14	6	13	2	4	2	5	4	5	5	10	7	9	29	25	5
			to	toward	under	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage											
			18	9	3	2	20	212	73.11											

Table 66

(Test 1, item 42)

We walked past many nice buildings.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses															
			aboard	about	across	along	alongside	amid(st)	among	around	at	before	below	between	beyond	by	facing	for
290	25	8.26	2	16	8	13	13	2	25	10	2	2	5	5	2	3	2	5
			inside	into	next(to)	of	off	on	onto	over	through	throughout	to	toward	under	x	blanks	Total number of errors
			6	8	2	3	3	2	2	3	36	6	4	11	2	2	3	19
			265															

Table 67
(Test 1, Item 43)

We walked past many nice buildings among which was the hotel...

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			aboard	after	against	ahead of	along	around	at	behind	below	by	down	facing	for	in	into	next(to)	of	off
290	14	4.82	4	5	3	3	4	4	13	3	4	6	2	2	5	29	2	2	9	2
			on	onto	out of	past	through	to	toward	under	up	x.	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage					
			12	2	6	5	7	4	2	2	3	90	41	276	95.18					

Table 68
(Test 1, Item 44)

As we entered ~~x~~ the museum, we..... .

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			aboard	about	around	at	behind	beyond	facing	from	in	inside	into	of	on	onto	opposite	past	through	to
290	36	12.14	2	4	3	9	6	2	3	5	14	38	85	3	8	2	2	2	2	44

toward	under	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
2	5	13	254	87.59

Table 69
(Test 1, Item 45)

As we went out of the building, we..... .

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			across	after	ahead of	alongside	among	around	at	behind	beyond	down	facing	for	from	in	inside	into	near	next(to)
290	37	12.75	12	2	2	4	5	7	6	4	2	9	2	3	4	4	26	14	3	5
			of	on	onto	opposite	past	through	throughout	to	toward	under	up	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage			
			3	3	2	4	3	8	3	76	17	2	5	4	9	253	87.25			

Table 70
(Test 1, Item 46)

We saw some of the children happily playing on the grass.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			above	across	against	along	amid(st)	among	around	at	beyond	from	in	inside	into	near	off	onto	over	through
290	106	36.55	10	5	3	3	3	11	2	30	3	5	22	6	10	3	3	11	30	5

under	up	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
4	2	2	11	184	63.45

Table 71
(Test 1, Item 47)

We went to our hotel to take a rest.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			across	after	amid(st)	at	beside	by	down	for	inside	into	near	next(to)	of	onto	out of	through	toward	up
290	210	72.41	5	2	3	6	2	2	3	8	2	4	2	2	2	2	6	3	3	6
			x	blanks	Total number of errors		Percentage													
			2	15	80		27.59													

Table 72
(Test 1, Item 48)

The room was on the second floor.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																
			above	after	against	among	around	at	before	below	down	facing	for	in	inside	into	near	next(to)	opposite
290	71	24.48	5	6	3	3	2	37	3	4	4	5	4	56	3	14	3	5	3
			over	to	under	up	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage									
			6	3	7	3	14	24	219	75.52									

Table 73
(Test 1, Item 49)

It was a small neatly room facing the sea.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			above	across	against	ahead of	along	alongside	around	at	before	behind	beside	beyond	from	in	into	near	of	on
290	91	31.37	13	6	9	12	5	2	5	18	2	5	3	3	8	5	5	6	6	15

onto	out of	over	throughout	to	toward	under	up	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
3	2	5	3	5	11	2	2	3	35	199	68.63

Table 74
(Test 1, Item 50)

After a while, lunch was set before us.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																
			about	above	ahead of	amid(st)	among	around	at	behind	beside	by	down	facing	for	in	into	near	next(to)
290	7	2.41	2	3	2	2	11	3	2	3	4	4	3	2	79	2	2	2	6
			off	on	out of	over	past	to	toward	up	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage					
			11	9	2	2	2	67	2	11	13	29	283	97.59					

Table 75
(Test 1, Item 51)

We all sat around the table to have our lunch.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			above	against	along	among	behind	below	beyond	down	for	in front of	in	into	near	of	on	onto	over	to
290	120	41.37	2	3	3	2	4	4	4	4	5	2	2	4	4	7	2	81	3	5
			blanks	Total number of errors		Percentage														
			30	170		58.63														

Table 76
(Test 1, Item 52)

My young daughter pulled the cloth which was spread over the table.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																		
			above	against	ahead of	alongside	among	around	at	behind	below	by	down	for	from	in	inside	into	near	next(to)	
290	123	42.41	20	2	2	4	2	3	22	2	2	5	3	3	9	7	2	7	2	2	
			of	off	onto	out of	through	to	under	up	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage							
			2	2	3	8	2	5	7	3	13	23	167	57.59							

Table 77
(Test 1, Item 53)

Some of the dishes fell off the table and broke.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			about	above	after	against	amid(st)	around	at	before	below	beyond	by	down	for	from	in	into	of	on
290	7	2.41	2	3	2	2	3	4	7	2	7	2	2	81	6	55	6	7	5	19

out of	over	to	under	up	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
5	6	7	17	3	11	19	283	97.59

Table 78
(Test 1, Item 54)

Then we went to the beach to pass some time by the sea.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			after	ahead of	around	at	between	by	down	in	inside	into	of	on	opposite	out of	through	under	up	x
290	190	65.51	5	2	5	9	3	3	3	3	5	10	3	6	2	2	3	6	2	5
			blanks	Total number of errors		Percentage														
			23	100		34.49														

Table 79
(Test 1, Item 55)

Then we went to the beach to pass some time by the sea.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																		
			across	against	along	alongside	among	around	behind	facing	from	in	inside	into	near	next(to)	of	on	onto	out of	
290	83	25.17	4	2	5	8	2	2	8	10	6	22	5	16	4	2	4	31	5	3	
			over	past	through	to	under	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage										
			4	3	4	11	3	4	39	207	74.83										

Table 80

(Test 1, Item 56)

The children enjoyed themselves by pulling each other along the warm sand.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			above	against	around	at	before	below	beyond	by	down	for	from	in	inside	into	near	next((to)	of	opposite
290	53	18.27	11	6	3	10	2	2	5	42	2	5	4	16	3	13	2	3	11	4
			out of	over	through	to	toward	under	other items	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage							
			6	4	7	21	3	4	2	17	29	237	81.73							

Table 81
(Test 1, Item 57)

..... and then jumping into the sea to clean their bodies.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			above	across	among	around	beside	beyond	down	from	in	inside	near	of	on	out of	over	through	to	under
290	115	39.65	2	5	3	2	3	2	3	2	34	13	3	4	13	3	13	4	16	6
			up	blanks	Total number of errors		Percentage													
			4	40	175		60.35													

Table 82
(Test 1, Item 58)

We left the island and all its beauty behind us.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			aboard	about	across	against	ahead of	along	amid(st)	among	around	at	below	beyond	facing	for	into	into	next(to)	of
290	32	11.03	2	3	4	2	8	2	6	7	4	3	4	4	8	72	9	4	2	8

on	opposite	over	past	to	up	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
5	4	3	5	32	3	9	45	258	88.97

Table 83
(Test 1, Item 59)

The last sight we saw was the sun disappearing over the horizon.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses															
			aboard	about	across	against	along	alongside	amid(st)	among	at	behind	beyond	down	facing	for	from	in
290	38	13.10	2	2	11	2	4	6	2	2	9	2	2	4	3	3	13	59
			near	of	off	on	onto	out of	through	throughout	to	toward	under	up	.x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
			2	11	2	40	3	3	14	2	7	4	10	3	6	10	252	86.90

Table 84
(Test 1, Item 60)

The idea of going back ~~z~~ home was unappealing.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																	
			across	amid(st)	among	at	behind	by	for	in	into	next(to)	of	off	out of	past	to	toward	up	blanks
290	59	20.34	3	2	2	35	4	3	10	3	3	2	6	2	2	3	37	8	2	4
			Total number of errors		Percentage															
			231		79.66															

Table 85
(Test 1, Item 61)

The cat jumped onto the mantelpiece.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			into	of	on	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	92	29.67	2	9	190	15	218	70.33

Table 86
(Test 2, Item 1)

They decided to build another bridge across the Tigris.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			above	on	over	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	94	30.32	74	18	114	10	216	69.68

Table 87
(Test 2, Item 2)

They live in that village among the hills.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			at	between	in	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	225	72.58	25	44	14	2	85	27.42

Table 88
(Test 2, Item 3)

They have just gone aboard the ship.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			at	of	on	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	134	43.22	35	24	105	12	176	56.75

Table 89
(Test 2, Item 4)

Tom was a good runner, so he soon got ahead of the others.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			above	across	before	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	148	47.74	10	22	125	5	162	52.26

Table 90
(Test 2, Item 5)

Take your hand out of your pocket.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			at	from	in	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	162	52.25	5	97	42	4	148	47.75

Table 91
(Test 2, Item 6)

We had an accident within a mile of the station.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			across	by	from	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	71	22.90	27	54	149	9	239	77.10

Table 92
(Test 2, Item 7)

They entered ~~x~~ a police station.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			into	onto	to	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	125	40.32	136	3	43	3	185	59.68

Table 93
(Test 2, Item 8)

We saw many farmers working on their farms.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			above	in	over	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	42	13.54	12	233	15	8	268	86.46

Table 94
(Test 2, Item 9)

Old people prefer to stay at home.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses			
			in	x	Total Number of Errors	percentage
310	250	80.46	17	43	60	19.36

Table 95
(Test 2, Item 10)

She dived into the swimming pool.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			at	in	on	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	169	54.51	24	84	27	6	141	45.49

Table 96
(Test 2, Item 11)

The weather forecast says that there is a thick cloud
over the south of England.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			about	above	on	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	99	31.93	38	61	86	26	211	68.07

Table 97
(Test 2, Item 12)

Iraq lies between Syria, Jordan and Turkey.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			among	in	on	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	32	10.32	(261)	7	3	7	278	89.68

Table 98
(Test 2, Item 13)

I found the missing spoon in the sand.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			at	from	inside	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	125	40.32	42	6	(128)	9	185	59.68

Table 99
(Test 2, Item 14)

His bicycle was leaning against the tree.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			above	on	over	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	182	58.70	20	80	21	7	128	41.30

Table 100
(Test 2, Item 15)

It took us half an hour to swim across the river to the other side.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			in	on	over	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	223	71.93	67	8	8	4	87	28.07

Table 101
(Test 2, Item 16)

She lives in Oakfield Avenue.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			at	on	x	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	191	61.61	(52)	16	(47)	4	119	38.39

Table 102
(Test 2, Item 17)

The vessel anchored alongside the quay.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			along	on	over	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	89	28.71	(109)	40	35	37	221	71.29

Table 103
(Test 2, Item 18)

We walked around the country looking for him.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			below	in	on	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	221	71.29	18	56	12	3	89	28.71

Table 104

(Test 2, Item 19)

The lake was frozen, so we walked across the ice.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			in	through	throughout	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	96	30.96	19	165	22	8	214	69.04

Table 105

(Test 2, Item 20)

I am going to leave for my country next month.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			at	of	to	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	94	30.32	19	62	130	5	216	69.68

Table 106
(Test 2, Item 21)

The picture fell off the wall.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			from	of	other items	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	41	13.22	161	24	79	5	269	86.78

Table 107
(Test 2, Item 22)

We got our lunch at the restaurant.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			for	in	x	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	119	38.38	7	179	4	5	191	61.62

Table 108

(Test 2, Item 23)

The glass was broken because of a stone thrown at it.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			into	on	to	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	81	26.12	71	122	24	12	229	73.88

Table 109

(Test 2, Item 24)

The missile went through the air.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			in	inside	of	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	249	80.32	25	21	11	4	61	19.68

Table 110
(Test 2, Item 25)

He lives on the first floor.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			at	in	x	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	70	22.58	79	125	34	2	240	77.42

Table 111
(Test 2, Item 26)

She walked silently along the corridor to the meeting hall.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			in	on	throughout	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	197	63.54	26	9	74	4	113	36.46

Table 112
(Test 2, Item 27)

A large hospital was built around the corner.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			in	on	through	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	90	29.03	108	110	9	3	220	70.97

Table 113
(Test 2, Item 28)

When we last saw him, he was climbing slowly over the fence.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			above	across	through	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	139	44.83	(83)	(51)	31	5	171	55.17

Table 114
(Test 2, Item 29)

The sun disappeared over the horizon.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			in	inside	under	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	40	12.90	(85)	(72)	(106)	7	270	87.10

Table 115
(Test 2, Item 30)

She lives at 73 Park Avenue.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			in	on	x	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	113	36.45	95	24	74	4	197	63.55

Table 116
(Test 2, Item 31)

How long would it take us to go through this forest.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			across	in	inside	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	104	33.54	67	48	82	9	206	66.46

Table 117
(Test 2, Item 32)

She has a gold chain about her neck.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			at	in	on	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	59	19.03	47	80	121	3	251	80.97

Table 118
(Test 2, Item 33)

He walked across the room smiling strangely.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			in	through	throughout	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	37	11.93	132	42	90	9	273	88.07

Table 119
(Test 2, Item 34)

We are off home now.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			in	of	x	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	30	9.67	(160)	6	(109)	5	280	90.33

Table 120
(Test 2, Item 35)

The description of the wanted man was circulated throughout the country.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			at	on	through	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	85	27.41	78	(68)	(60)	19	225	72.59

Table 121
(Test 2, Item 36)

Basrah is about 300 miles south of Baghdad.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			at	from	x	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	110	35.48	6	(127)	(62)	5	200	64.52

Table 122
(Test 2, Item 37)

He always arrives early at his office.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			in	on	to	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	46	14.83	19	4	(237)	4	264	85.17

Table 123
(Test 2, Item 38)

Go quickly via the stairs when you discover a fire.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			aboard	in	over	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	60	19.35	72	33	138	7	250	80.65

Table 124
(Test 2, Item 39)

He prefer to sit at his table all the time.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			above	in	on	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	84	27.09	14	45	163	4	226	72.91

Table 125
(Test 2, Item 40)

This train passes through Crewe and Carlisle.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			in	throughout	within	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	155	50.00	(25)	(51)	(72)	7	155	50.00

Table 126
(Test 2, Item 41)

They went ~~x~~ home two hours ago.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			across	at	to	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	210	67.74	7	(73)	(18)	2	100	32.26

Table 127
(Test 2, Item 42)

There are many tall trees along the main road to the village.

Number of Tested Items	Number of Correct Responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			above	in	other items	blanks	Total Number of Errors	Percentage
310	203	65.48	15	32	56	4	107	34.52

Table 128
(Test 2, Item 43)

All the people went aboard the ship.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses														
			above	at	in	into	of	on	over	to	up	upon	other items	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	20	5.79	2	8	8	3	2	172	8	59	23	4	8	4	24	325	94.21

Table 129
(Test 3, Item 1)

Another bridge was built across the river.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses										
			about	above	along	down	into	on	over	up	upon	blanks	Total number of errors
345	10	2.89	2	68	3	2	4	51	183	7	10	6	335
													97.11

Table 130
(Test 3, Item 2)

Don't lean against the wall.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses										
			at	by	in	of	on	to	upon	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	7	2.02	102	5	3	4	159	8	3	5	13	338	97.98

Table 131
(Test 3, Item 3)

There are many tall trees along the main road.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses												
			across	alongside	among	at	behind	beside	by	in	of	on	other items	blanks	Total number of errors
345	172	49.85	5	2	2	11	2	7	2	32	4	78	20	8	173

Table 132
(Test 3, Item 4)

The officer was running ahead of the others.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses							
			after	among	before	behind	other items	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	264	76.52	4	3	40	3	28	3	81	23.48

Table 133
(Test 3, Item 5)

We saw a ship stopping alongside the quay.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses															
			across	along	among	at	behind	beside	by	in	inside	near	on	other items	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	217	62.09	7	12	2	8	4	2	6	7	4	46	5	13	3	9	128	37.01

Table 134
(Test 3, Item 6)

My friend built a house among the trees.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses				
			between	inside	through	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	245	71.01	93	4	3	100	28.99

Table 135
(Test 3, Item 7)

The manager prefers to sit at his table all the time.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses											
			behind	for	in	of	on	to	upon	other items	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	95	27.53	4	2	25	3	200	4	3	3	2	4	250	72.47

Table 136
(Test 3, Item 8)

The post office is around the corner.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses										
			at	in	inside	of	on	to	other items	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	2	00.57	62	192	3	3	36	3	24	5	15	343	99.43

Table 137
(Test 3, Item 9)

We walked about the town looking for the missing child.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																
			across	along	at	down	from	in	inside	into	of	on	through	to	other items	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	12	3.47	2	3	13	9	4	245	6	8	3	9	11	5	2	6	7	333	96.53

Table 138
(Test 3, Item 10)

Suha was studying at Mosul University.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses							
			in front of	in	of	on	other items	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	107	31.01	2	220	3	6	3	4	238	68.99

Table 139
(Test 3, Item 11)

Don't go beyond that place.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses												Total number of errors	Percentage
			about	along	at	for	from	of	on	out of	to	other items	x	blanks		
345	37	10.72	4	2	5	15	33	3	3	6	42	174	6	15	308	89.28

Table 140
(Test 3, Item 12)

Take your hand out of your pocket.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses									
			for	from	in	of	off	on	other items	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	47	13.62	2	243	10	14	7	9	5	8	298	86.38

Table 141
(Test 3, Item 13)

The boy went ~~x~~ home late.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			at	to	other items	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	135	39.13	42	151	2	15	210	60.87

Table 142
(Test 3, Item 14)

The girl threw a stone at the glass.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses												
			against	for	in	into	of	on	through	to	toward	upon	x	blanks	Total number of errors
345	116	33.62	3	2	9	15	3	138	14	31	3	2	2	7	229

Table 143
(Test 3, Item 15)

There is a large garden behind their house.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses								
			along	at	beyond	in	on	other items	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	292	84.63	8	2	3	17	3	18	2	53	15.37

Table 144
(Test 3, Item 16)

We are leaving for Basrah tomorrow.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses						
			at	from	in	to	x	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	19	5.50	5	5	4	296	16	326	94.50

Table 145
(Test 3, Item 17)

The monkey climbed onto the tree.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses												
			above	at	in	of	on	over	to	upon	other items	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	120	34.78	25	15	5	2	25	46	19	10	26	44	8	225	65.22

Table 146
(Test 3, Item 18)

My father always prefers to stay at home.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses					
			in	other items	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	242	70.14	78	3	20	2	103	29.86

Table 147
(Test 3, Item 19)

The sun appeared through the clouds.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses :									
			among	between	from	in	onto	throughout	other items	x	blanks	Total number of errors
345	282	81.73	10	3	16	4	3	3	18	2	4	63

Table 148
(Test 3, Item 20)

Salwa often arrives at her office early.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses									
			for	from	in	of	to	other items	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	45	13.04	4	3	5	3	223	4	50	8	300	86.96

Table 149
(Test 3, Item 21)

We went through many towns on our way to the capital.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses															
			across	along	among	around	at	for	from	in	into	of	on	over	to	other items	x	blanks
345	92	26.66	9	4	5	4	14	6	6	33	13	6	18	3	67	23	24	18
			Total number of errors		Percentage													
			253		73.34													

Table 150
(Test 3, Item 22)

Most of the pupils came to school through the fields.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses														
			across	along	among	by	for	from	in	inside	into	of	to	other items	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	107	31.01	158	4	6	3	2	7	3	2	2	2	3	33	13	238	68.99

Table 151
(Test 3, Item 23)

My father bought a new house facing the sea.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses																
			across	against	among	at	before	behind	beside	by	near	of	on	toward	other items	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	199	57.68	4	16	4	3	10	2	12	8	10	4	9	4	30	2	28	146	42.32

Table 152
(Test 3, Item 24)

The plane crashed into the tree.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses												
			at	by	from	in	of	on	to	via	other items	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	13	3.76	14	72	3	20	12	7	13	2	107	67	15	332	96.24

Table 153
(Test 3, Item 25)

Babylon is fifty miles south of Baghdad.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses										
			about	for	from	in	to	via	other items	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	207	60.00	3	4	55	2	2	4	10	46	12	138	40.00

Table 154
(Test 3, Item 26)

The accident took place within two miles of the station.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses														
			about	above	at	for	from	in	on	out of	past	to	other items	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	26	7.53	26	3	12	10	211	6	7	3	2	10	13	6	10	319	92.47

Table 155
(Test 3, Item 27)

The books fell off the shelf.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses										
			at	down	from	in	into	of	on	other items	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	6	1.73	5	74	165	8	6	12	37	17	15	339	98.27

Table 156
(Test 3, Item 28)

You are not allowed to take this book out of the library.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses							
			from	in	on	to	other items	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	299	86.66	19	7	2	6	6	6	46	13.34

Table 157
(Test 3, Item 29)

The sun disappeared over the horizon.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses														Total number of errors	Percentage
			at	behind	down	from	in	into	of	on	through	up	other items	x	blanks			
345	12	3.47	28	2	3	12	222	12	4	27	3	2	6	3	9	333	96.53	

Table 158
(Test 3, Item 30)

The rain poured through the ceiling.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses								
			among	down	from	into	throughout	other items	x	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	268	77.68	4	4	36	3	4	24	2	77	22.32

Table 159
(Test 3, Item 31)

We watched the missile going through the air.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses														
			across	at	by	from	in	into	of	on	over	to	up	within	other items	x	blanks
345	78	22.60	2	7	2	5	107	39	6	27	3	42	5	4	4	4	10

Table 160
(Test 3, Item .32)

The description of the criminal was circulated throughout the town.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses															
			across	among	around	at	for	in	into	of	on	over	through	to	up	other items	x	blanks
345	9	2.60	3	4	2	8	4	44	2	6	39	23	3	21	2	146	13	25
			Total number of errors															
			Percentage															
			336		97.40													

Table 161
(Test 3, Item 33)

The climbers went up the mountain.

Number of tested Items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses													
			above	at	into	on	over	through	to	toward	upon	other items	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	136	39.42	31	5	3	16	31	3	80	3	2	29	2	4	209	60.58

Table 162
(Test 3, Item 34)

The ship came to Iraq by the Arab Gulf.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses													Total number of errors	Percentage
			about	across	along	among	for	from	in	on	throughout	to	other items	x	blanks		
345	195	56.52	5	25	3	2	3	68	6	3	2	6	16	3	8	150	43.48

Table 163
(Test 3, Item 35)

All the people entered x the building.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses										
			at	from	in	inside	into	on	over	to	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	102	29.56	3	3	32	11	54	8	2	126	4	243	70.44

Table 164
(Test 3, Item 36)

The ship stopped off the coast.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses														Total number of errors	Percentage
			against	along	at	for	from	in	of	on	out of	through	to	other items	x	blanks		
345	32	9.27	4	3	14	11	3	5	2	4	8	2	2	241	2	12	313	90.73

Table 165
(Test 3, Item 37)

The students got their lunch at the university refectory.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses									
			from	in	inside	into	of	on	other items	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	88	25.50	5	211	2	7	3	19	6	4	257	74.50

Table 166
(Test 3, Item 38)

The soldiers went down the mountain.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses										
			above	at	below	beside	into	to	under	other items	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	216	62.60	2	9	2	3	3	44	49	13	4	129	37.40

Table 167
(Test 3, Item 39)

The birds were diving into the water looking for their food.

Number of tested items	Number of correct responses	Percentage	Incorrect Responses												
			down	in	inside	of	on	through	to	under	other items	x	blanks	Total number of errors	Percentage
345	81	23.47	5	3	196	2	2	.26	4	3	10	4	9	264	76.53

Table 168
(Test 3, Item 40)

Appendix D

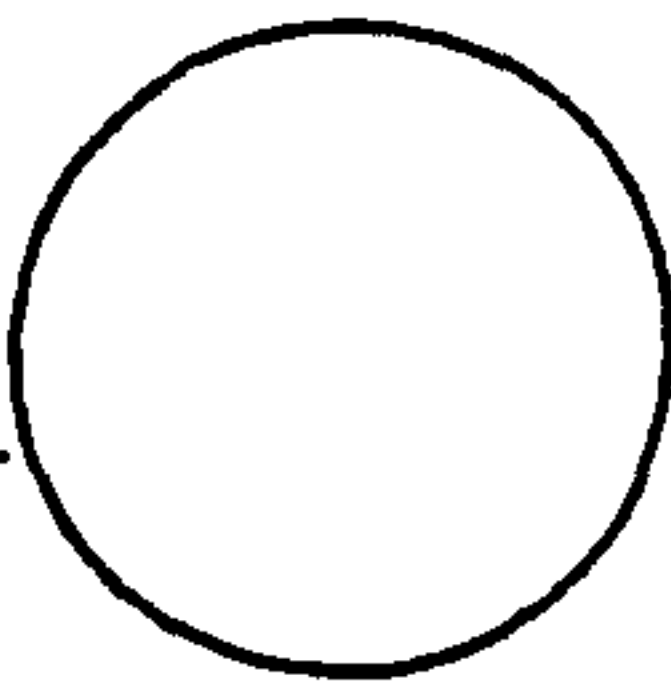
Exercises

Inside and Outside

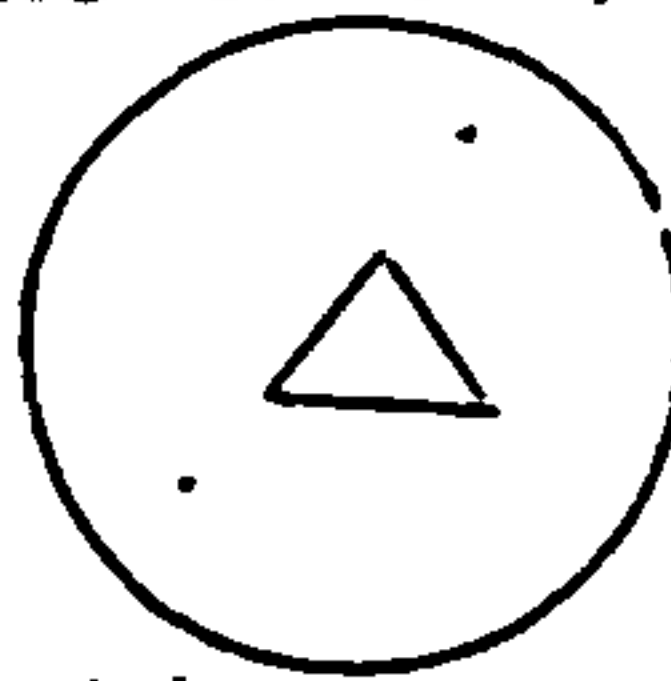
Ex: 1. Make five sentences from these boxes:

1. There is a film		the door.
2. There is a dustbin	inside	the hospital.
3. There is an ambulance		the pen.
4. There is a spider	out side	the camera.
5. There is some ink		this jar.

Ex: 2. There is a circle.

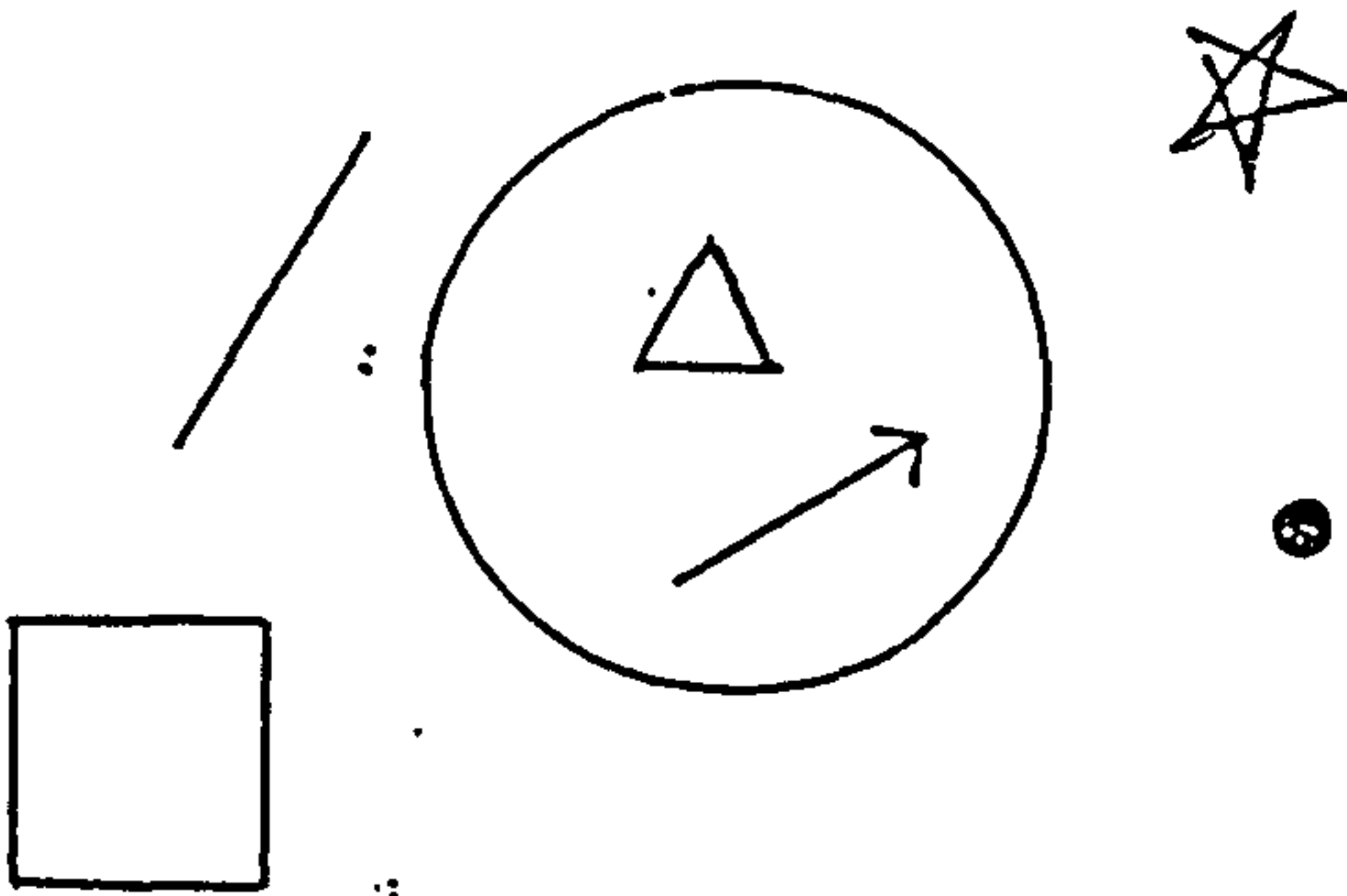


There is a triangle inside the circle, and there is a dot outside the circle.



Form six sentences about the things you can see inside or outside this circle:

- 1. a triangle
- 2. a dot
- 3. a square
- 4. a line
- 5. an arrow
- 6. a star



Ex: 3. Use inside or outside in the gaps in these sentences:

- 1. We stayed the house because it was raining.

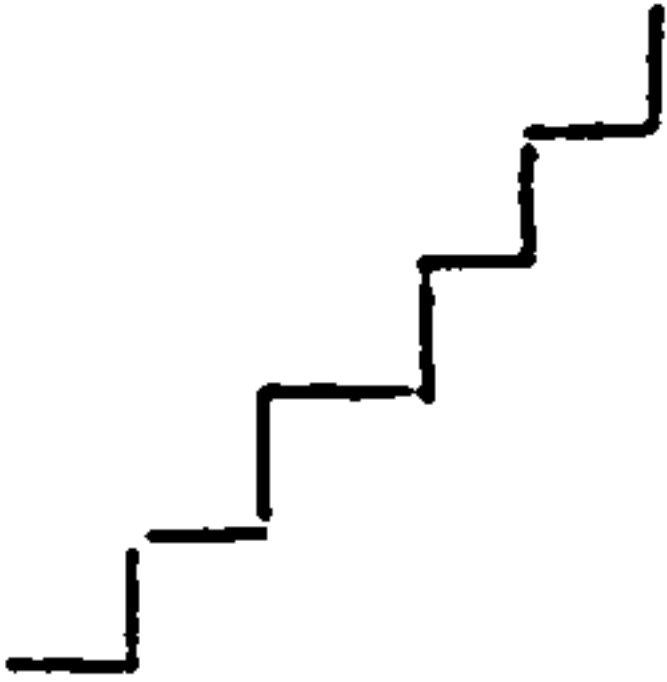
- 2. Taxis park the railway station to wait for passengers.
- 3. There is a large date-palm the old mosque.
- 4. The bird escaped from its cage and sat the cage, on a chair.
- 5. Your brain is your head.



Up and Down



Ex: 1. Make five sentences from these boxes:

1. The old man walked slowly	up	her face.
2. The snake went		the ladder quickly.
3. The doctor wants to look		the steps.
4. The thin man went	down	your throat now.
5. The raindrops ran		a hole in the forest.



Ex:2. Here are some steps.



Form five sentences about who goes  and  the steps

Examples:  Noor goes up the steps every day.
 Osama goes down the steps every day.

Here are the names of the people or animals who go or the steps every day.

- 1.  the black cat.
- 2.  the postman.

3. ↙ his daughter.

4. ↗ my old grandmother.

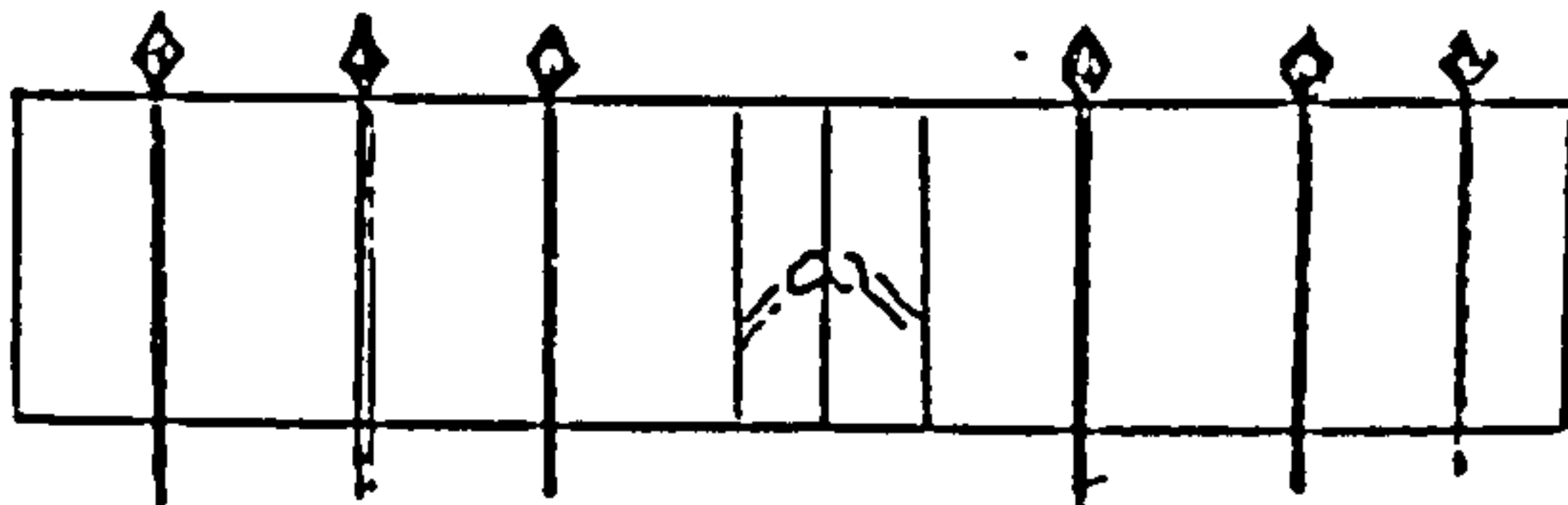
5. ↙ Ali's cousin.



Ex:3. Use either up or down in the gaps in these sentences:


1. Water always flows a hill.
2. Have you ever climbed a high mountain?
3. The lizard ran the wall to the ceiling..
4. The children ran the beach to the sea.
5. The boys went the stairs very fast.

Over and Under

Ex:1. This is a high gate.



Yesterday some people or animals or things went  the gate and some people or animals went  the gate.

Example: A big snake  A big snake went under the gate.

Make some more sentences:

1. A long worm



2. some soldiers



3. A prisoner



4. a frightened chicken



5. A red rubber ball



Ex:2. Draw a line in your exercise book, like this



You will write some words over the line and other words under the line.

Read these sentences and do what they tell you:

1. Write the word "happy" over the line.
2. Write the word "unhappy" under the line.
3. Write the word "pleased" over the line.
4. Write the word "annoyed" under the line.
5. Write the word "interesting" over the line.
6. Write the word "boring" under the line.
7. Draw your head over the line.
8. Draw your toes under the line.

Ex:3. Fill in the gaps with either over or under

1. Those black clouds are coming the mountains.
2. The plane flew the airport before it landed.
3. The kitten ran to hide the wardrobe when the dog came in.
4. I saw a snake go the fence in our garden.
5. The water flowed the top of the bucket after the rain.

Round and Through

Ex:1. Take the beginning of the sentence from box (A) and then find the end of the sentence in box (B)

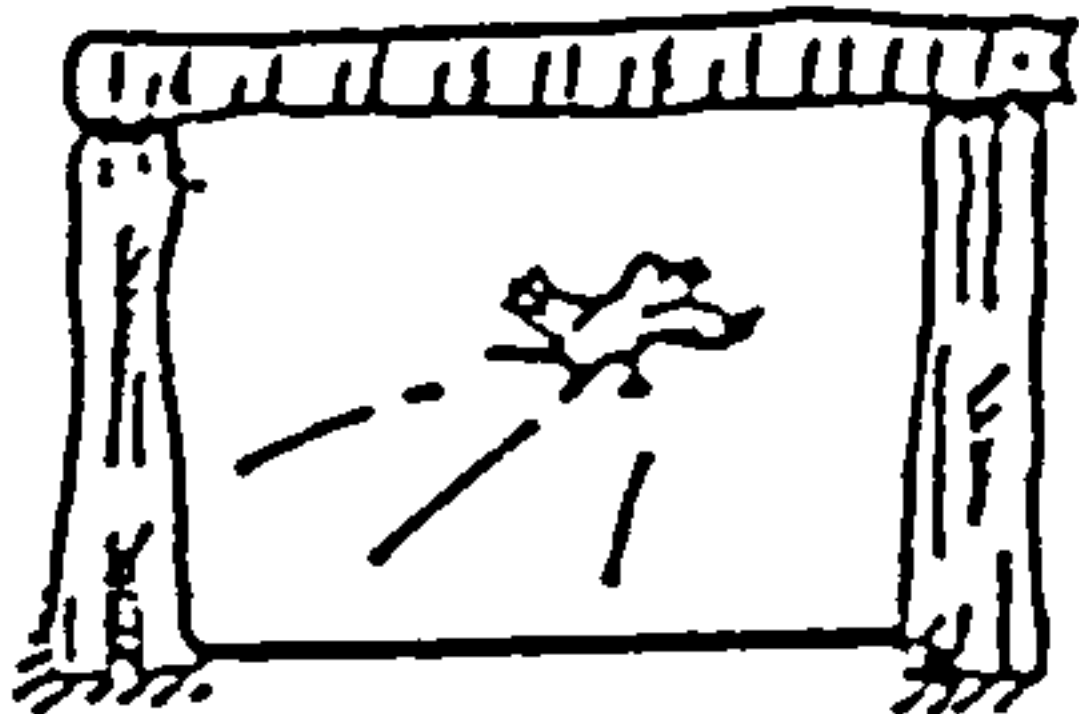
Box A

Box B

1. The moon goes	round his waist.
2. Scientists look at the stars	through its windows.
3. A boy ties his belt	round the earth.
4. Sunshine comes into a house	through the gap in the hills.
5. You can see the lake	through telescopes.

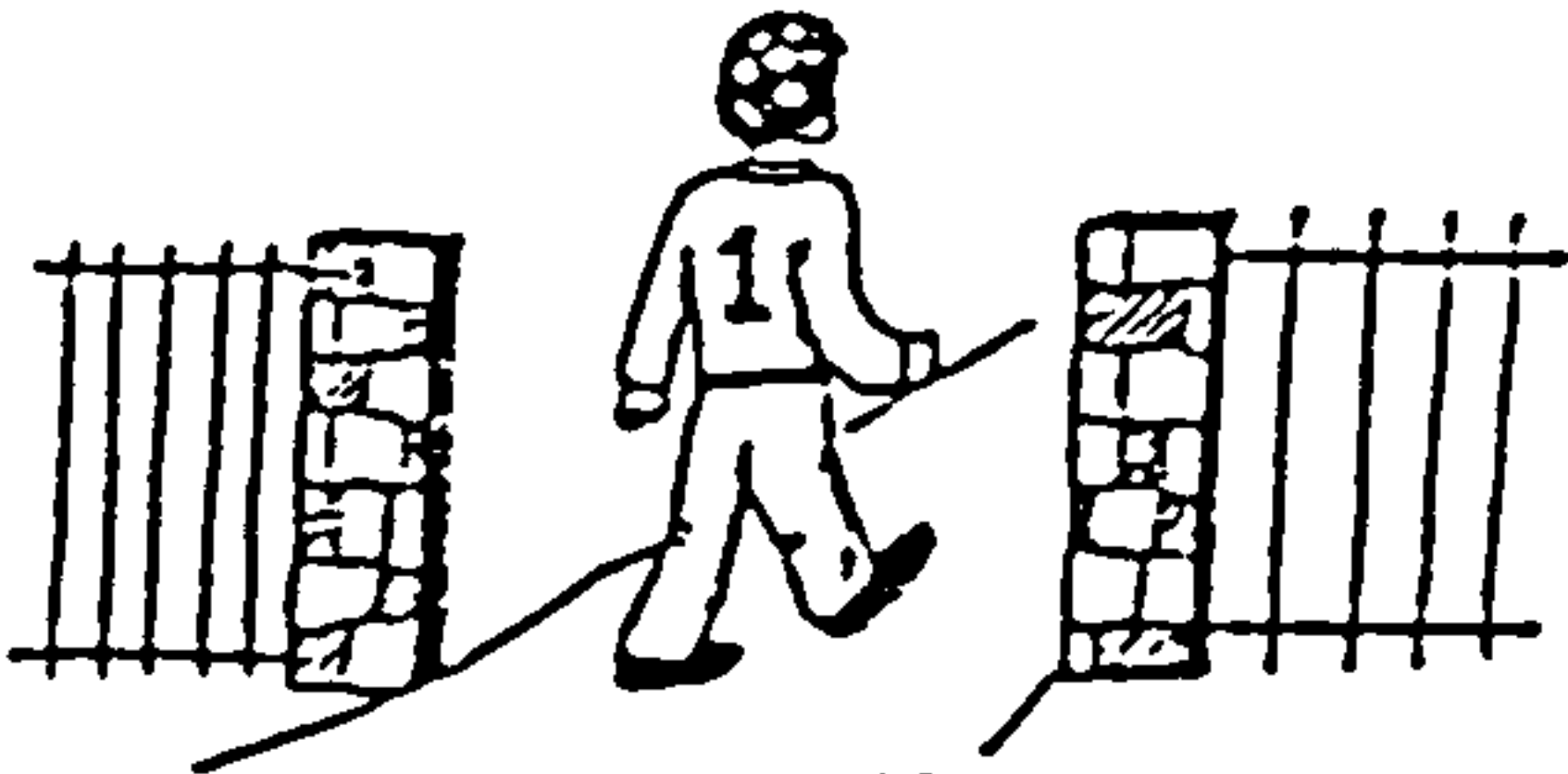
Ex:2. Look at the pictures and try to answer the questions about them.

1.



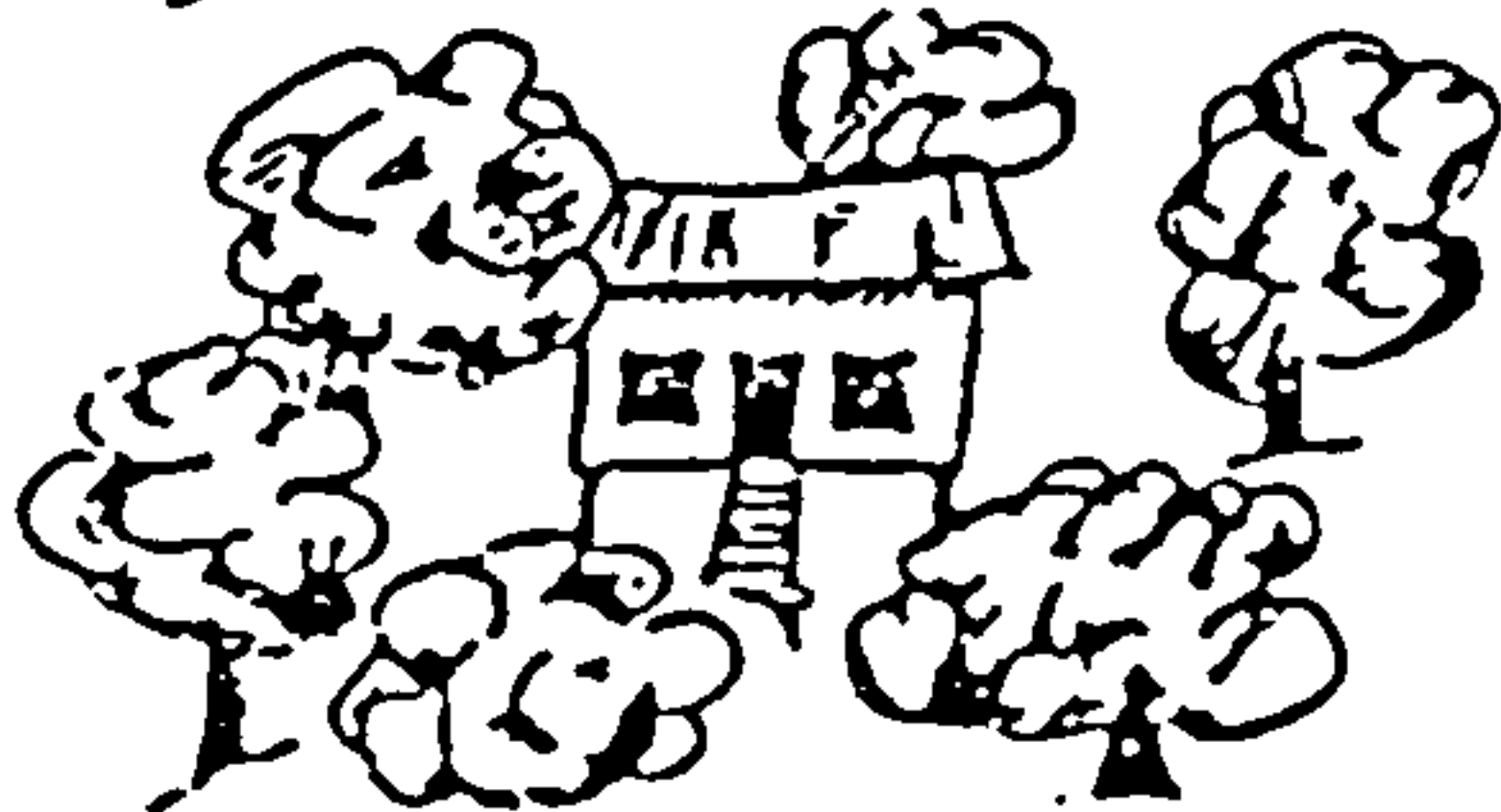
Where is the bird flying?

2.



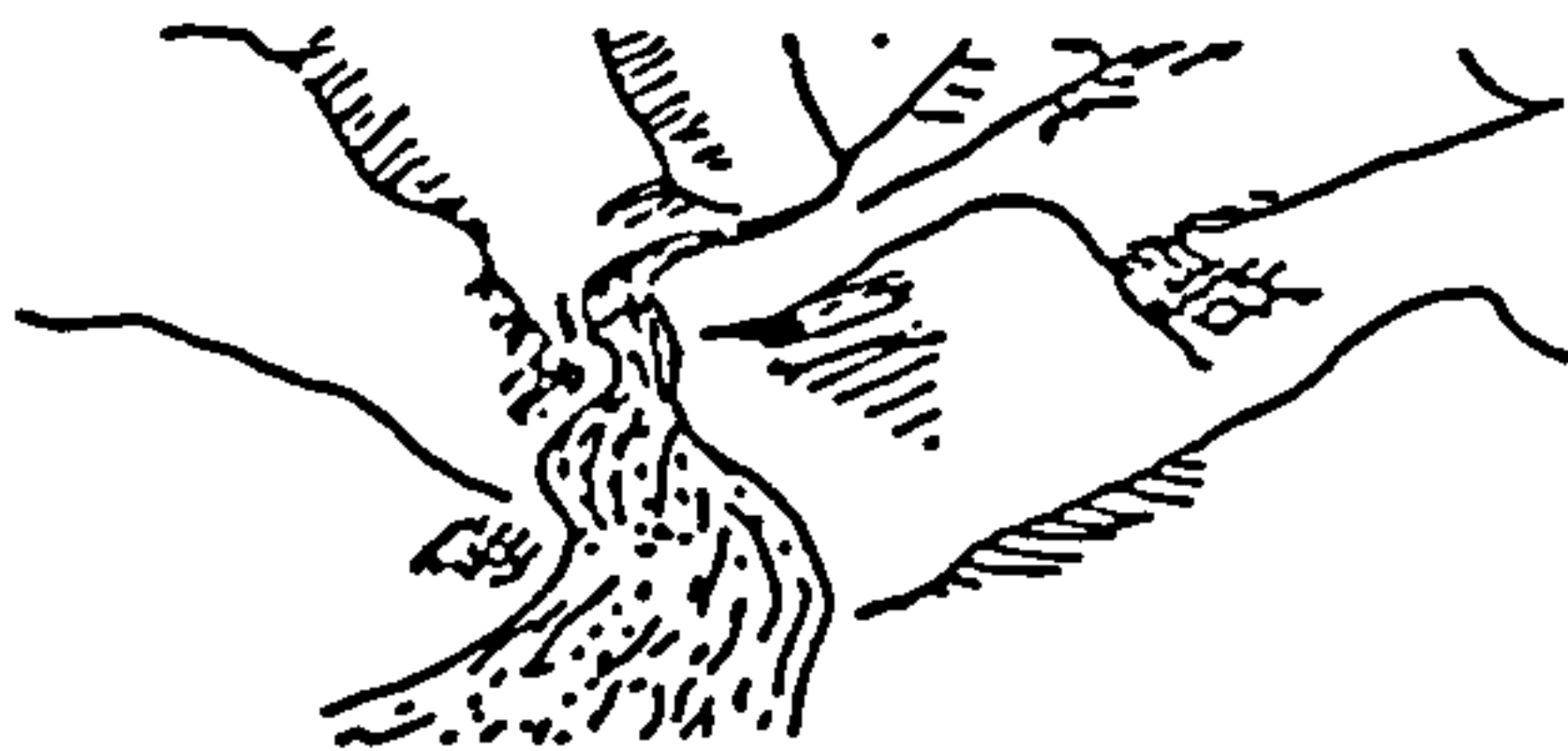
Where is the man going?

3.



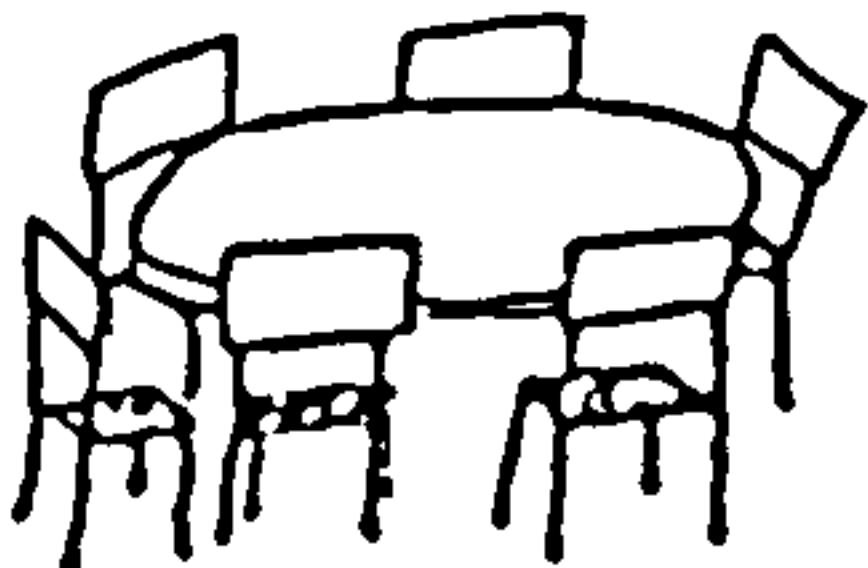
Where are the trees?

4.



Where does the river flow?

5.



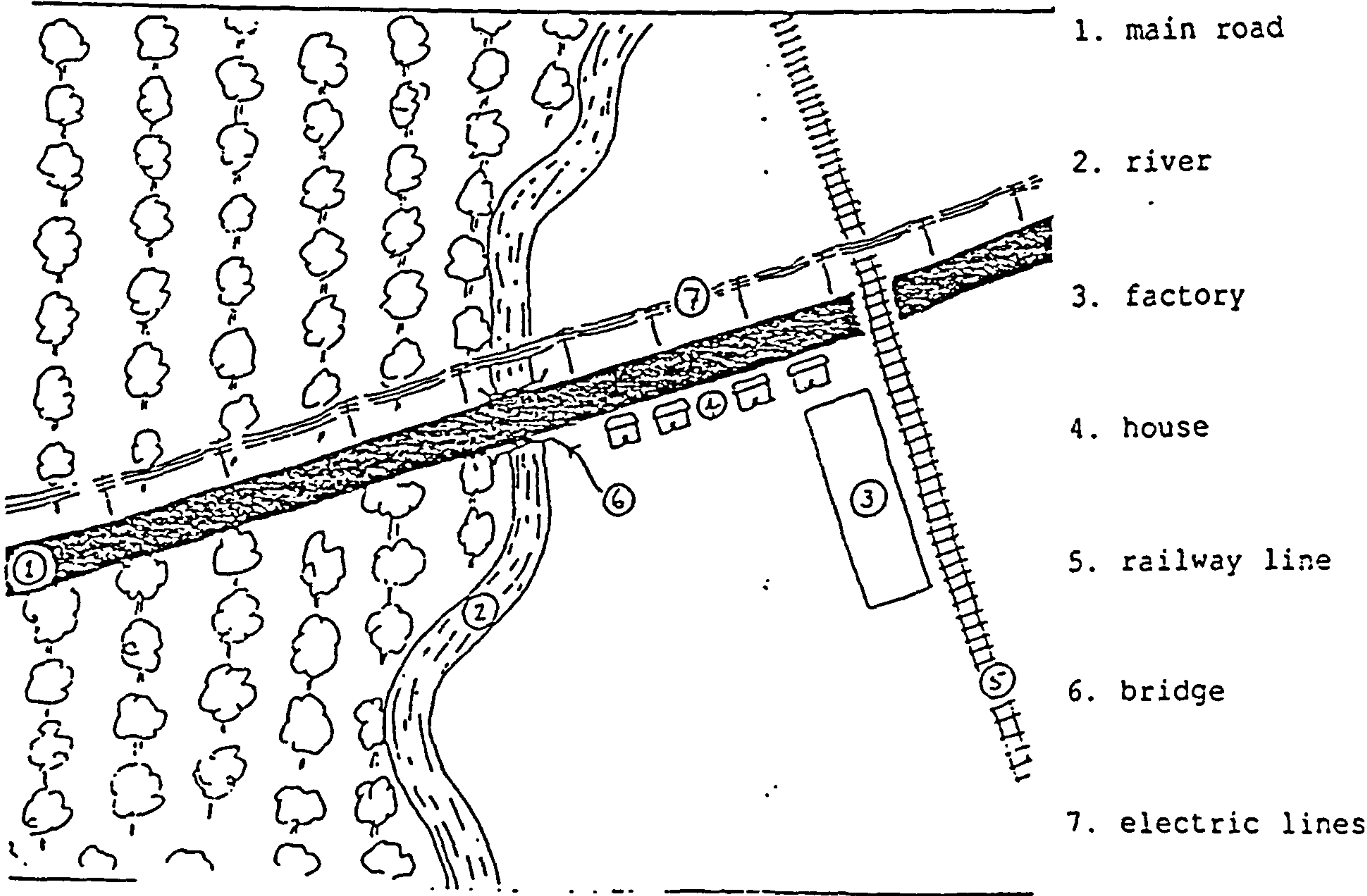
Where are the chairs?

Along and Across

Ex:1. Make five sentences from these boxes:

1. The football rolled	along	the wall of the school.
2. The boys jumped		the fence of the playground.
3. The thieves escaped		the river everyday.
4. He swims	across	the side of the main road.
5. The electric lines go		the tunnel near their house.

Ex:2. Look at this map



Now write some short answers to these questions:

Example: Q. Does the main road go along the river or across it?

A. Across it.

1. Does the river go along the side of the rubber state or across it?
2. Is the factory across the railway line or along the side of it?
3. Are the houses across the main road or along it?
4. Does the railway line go along the main road or across it?
5. Is the bridge across the river or along it?
6. Are the electric lines along the main road or across it?
7. Do the electric lines go along the railway line or across it?

Ex: 3. Fill in the gaps with either along or across:

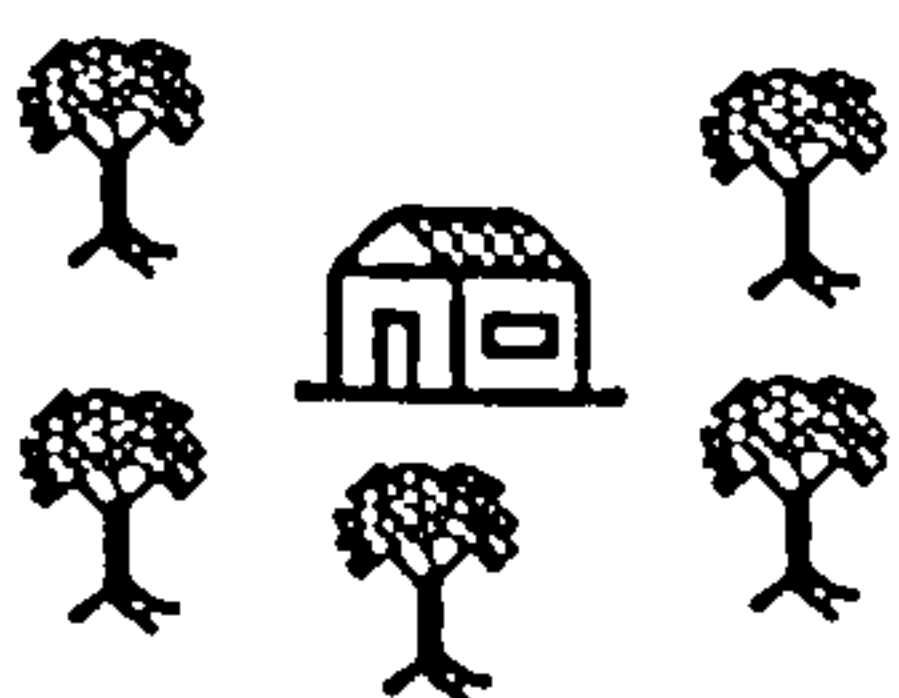
1. The lorry drove too fast the highway.
2. the side of the road, there were broken bottles.
3. The tanks went the bridge, into the enemy town.
4. The fence goes the side of the road.
5. He swam the river with his clothes on.

Between and Among

Ex:1. Look at the following drawings and then fill in the gaps with either between or among:

1. A

B



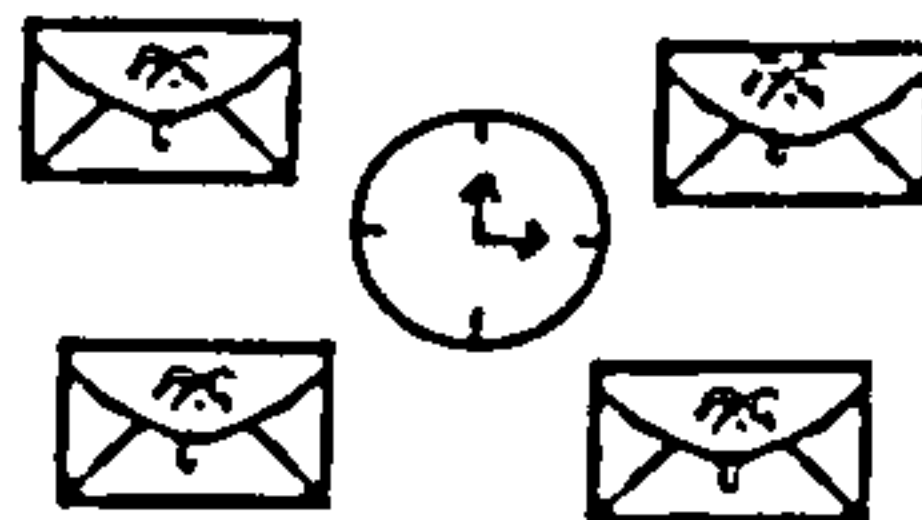
a. There is a house the trees.

b. There is a house two trees.

2. A



B



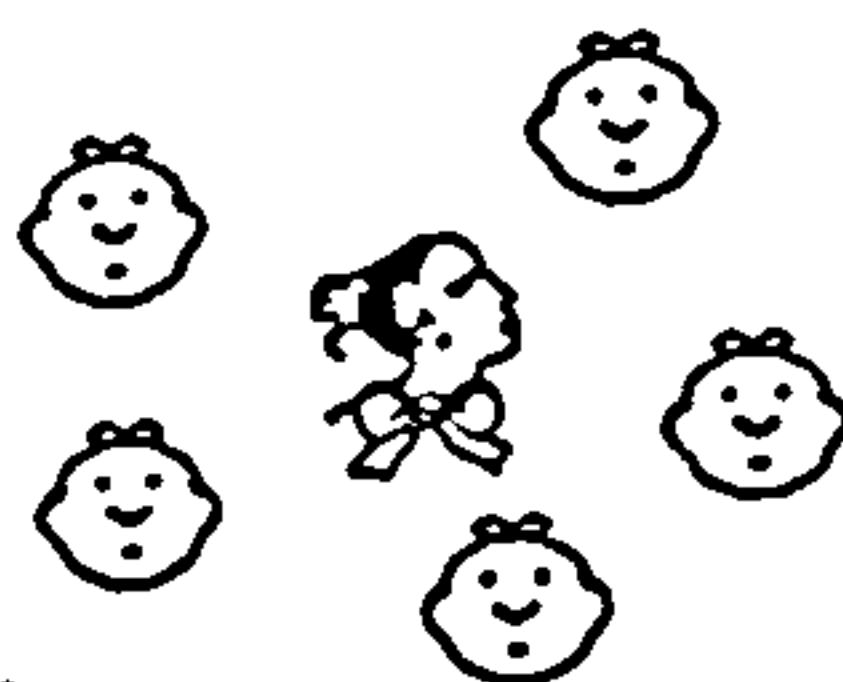
a. There is a clock..... two pictures.

b. There is a clock the pictures.

3. A



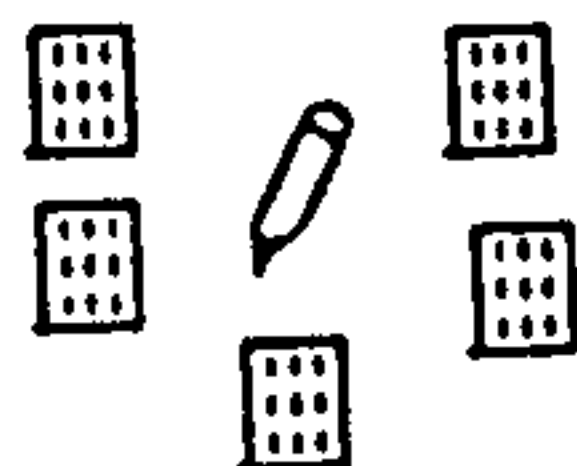
B



a. There is a girl two boys.

b. There is a girl the boys.

4. A



B



a. There is a pen the books.

b. There is a pen two books.

5. A



B



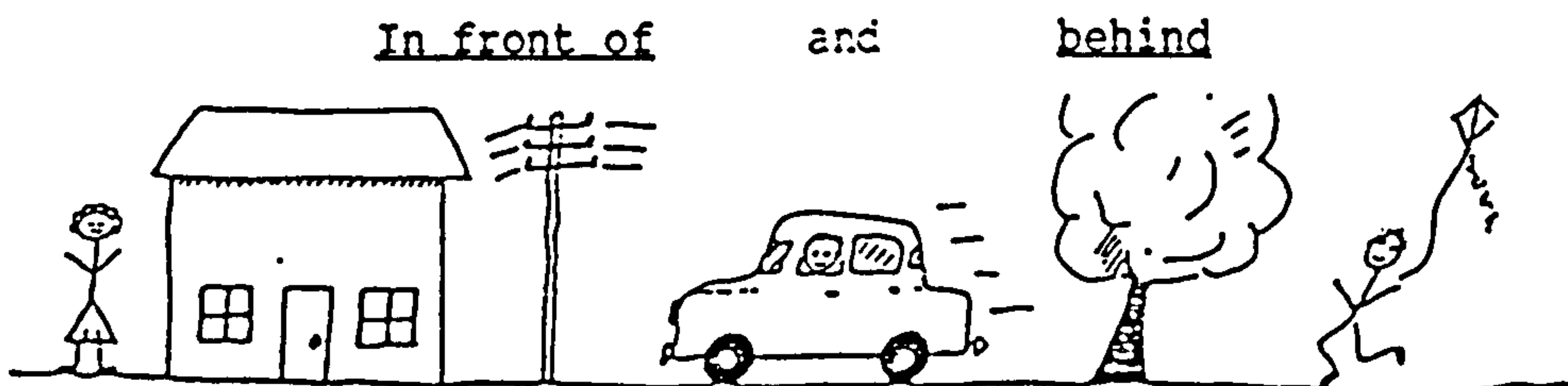
a. There is a mouse two cats.

b. There is a mouse the cats.

Ex:2. Here are the beginnings of five sentences. Look at the box to find the right ending for each one:

1. It is often hard to see butterflies
2. There is a bank
3. The two families share the garden
4. Your nose is
5. There are a few bad apples

between the hotel and the cinema.
 between your eyes.
 among all the flowers.
 between their houses.
 among all the good apples.



You are inside the car in this picture.

Answer these questions about the things that are in front of the car or behind it:

1. Where is the tree?
2. Is the girl behind the car or in front of it?
3. Where is the boy?
4. Where is the house?
5. Is the kite in front of the boy or behind him?

6. Where is the telephone pole?

Ex:2. Use either in front of or behind in the following gaps:

1. I park my car in the street my house.
2. There is a red letter box on the fence our school.
3. When you write, you put your book you on the desk.
4. Prisoners are kept high walls at the jail.
5. The headlights of a car are the engine.

Into and Out of

Ex:1. Make five sentences from these boxes:

1. He is diving		his school bag.
2. She is putting her clothes	into	the cinema after the film.
3. He is taking his books		the swimming pool.
4. Everyone is coming	out of	a suitcase.
5. The water comes		the tap very quickly.

Ex: 2. Read the sentences carefully and then do what the sentences tell you to do:

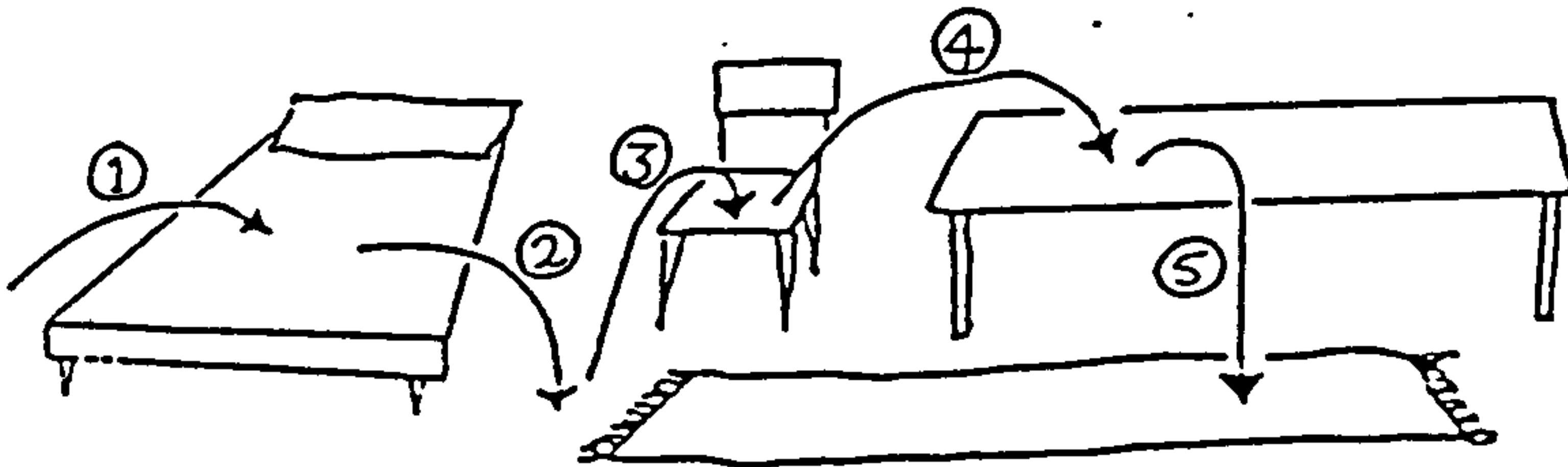
1. Here is the word 'fat'. Put an 'l' into the word after the 'f'. What is the new word you have made?
2. Here is the word 'beat'. Take the letter 'e' out of the word and you will make a new word. What is it?
3. Here is the word 'wait'. Put an 's' into the word after the 'i'. What is the new word you have made?
4. Here is the word 'that'. Take the first 't' out of the word, and you will make a new word. What is it?
5. Take the 'l' out of the word 'light', and put an 'n' into the word in the same place. What English word you have made?

Onto and Off

Ex:1. Here is a kitten. It is a naughty one.



It plays games in my room. This is where it goes:



Example: 1. It jumps off the floor and onto the bed.

Where does it go after that?

2. _____ .
3. _____ .
4. _____ .
5. _____ .

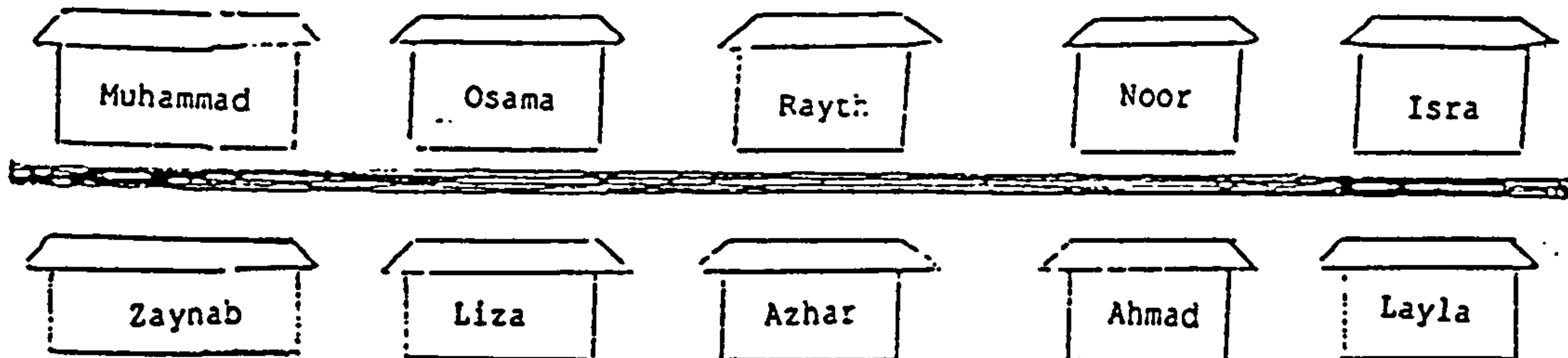
Ex:2. Look at the box on the right to find out the endings for these sentences:

1. The old lady climbed slowly
2. The football team ran
3. The big fox fell
4. The teacher wiped the words
5. The builder slipped and fell

off the back of the lorry. onto the train. off the ladder. onto the playing field. off the blackboard.
--

Next(to) and Opposite

Ex:1. These are houses along two sides of a street.



Fill in the gaps in this description of the street. Use either next(to) or opposite:

Example: Muhammad lives opposite Zaynab, and he lives next(to) Osama.

Rayth does not live _____ zaynab and Liza. He lives _____ Azhar.

Azhar lives _____ Ahmad, and Ahmad lives _____ Noor. Ahmad also lives

_____ Layla. Layla lives _____ Isra. Osama and Liza live _____ each

other. Osama lives in the house _____ Muhammad.

Ex:2. Make five sentences from these boxes:

1. In class, we sit _____ the letter 'l'.
2. Two football teams start _____ next(to) each other at desks.
3. In the alphabet 'k' is _____ each other in a match.
4. In a cinema the screen is _____ opposite the blackboard.
5. In class, pupils sit _____ the people.

Ex:3. The words in these sentences are all mixed up. Use the same words to form correct sentences:

1. opposite bank the is big supermarket a.
2. next(to) you sit me I 'll if show the you answers.
3. opposite police-station the prison is a there.
4. next(to) in letter 'o' the is the 'r' alphabet letter the.
5. a shop there opposite our is school.

Appendix E

Units from the English Course for Iraq

**BEST COPY
AVAILABLE**

**Variable print
quality**

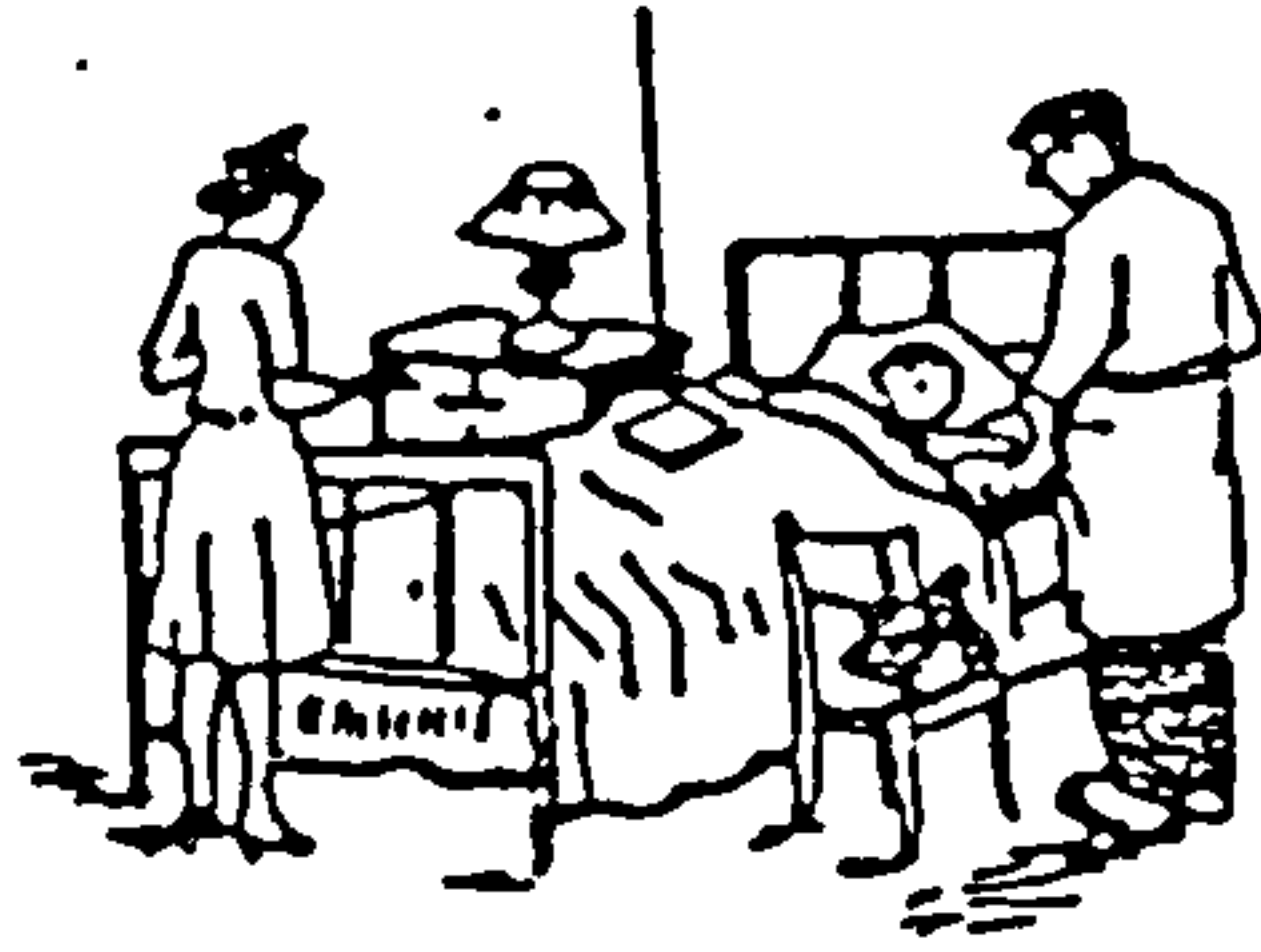
**PAGE
NUMBERING
AS ORIGINAL**

UNIT FIFTEEN

ORAL PRACTICE

15.1

Dialogue.



15.2

1. There are some nurses in the hospital.
Are there any nurses in the hospital ?
2. There are some trees in the garden.
Are there any trees in the garden ?
3. There are some flowers in the garden.
Are there any flowers in the garden ?
4. There are some sick men in the hospital.
Are there any sick men in the hospital ?
5. There are some fat lawyers in the office.
Are there any fat lawyers in the office ?
6. There are some old houses there.
Are there any old houses there ?

tree

شجرة

office

دائرة

flower

زهرة

15.3

1. Is there a car in the street ?

Yes, there's a car in the street.

No, there isn't a car in the street.

Are there any cars in the street ?

Yes, there are some cars in the street.

No, there aren't any cars in the street.

2. Is there a tree in the garden ?

Yes there's a tree in the garden.

No, there isn't a tree in the garden.

Are there any trees in the garden ?

Yes, there are some trees in the garden.

No, there aren't any trees in the garden.

3. Is there a flower in the garden ?

Yes, there's a flower in the garden.

No, there isn't a flower in the garden.

Are there any flowers in the garden ?

Yes, there are some flowers in the garden.

No, there aren't any flowers in the garden.

15.4

1. Is there an actor in the school ? Yes, there is.

Where is he ?

He's in that room.

2. Are there any doctors in the hospital ?

Yes, there are.

Where are they ?

They're in that room.

- | | |
|-------------------------|--------|
| 1. any trees-school | garden |
| 2. any flowers-school | garden |
| 3. a pen-classroom | table |
| 4. a boy-street | car |
| 5. a map-classroom | wall |
| 6. any gardeners-school | garden |

15.5

1. How many doctors are there in that hospital ?
There's only one.
2. How many gardeners are there in that garden ?
There's only one.
3. How many exercises are there on the blackboard ?
There's only one.
4. How many pilots are there in the room ?
There are only three.
5. How many lights are there on the ceiling ?
There are only six.
6. How many bags are there here ?
There are only seven.

15.6

Point to a _____. Touch the _____.

Examples.

- | | |
|---------------------|-----------------|
| 1. Point to a boy. | Touch the boy. |
| 2. Point to a wall. | Touch the wall. |
| 3. Point to a coat. | Touch the coat. |

PRONUNCIATION

15.7

boy point

15.8

this that these they those the them

15.9

thank healthy thin three

READING

15.10

For reading use 15.5

WRITING

15.11

Manual 1. Lessons 59 and 60

WRITTEN HOMEWORK

15.12

Write all the questions and the answers:

1. Is there a tree in the garden ? Yes, there is.
2. Is there a car in the street ? Yes, _____ .
3. Is there a nurse in the hospital ? Yes, _____ .
4. Is there a teacher in the room ? No, there isn't.
5. Is there a pupil in the office ? No, _____ .
6. Is there a chair in this room ? No, _____ .

15.13

Rewrite the sentences using some or any:

1. There are _____ flowers in the garden.
2. Are there _____ doctors in the school? No, there aren't _____ .
3. There aren't _____ dusters in the classroom.
4. Are there _____ green cars in the street? Yes, there are _____ .

Oral Practice

2.1

- Samir, what's there on your desk ?
- There are books and pencils.
- How many books are there ?
- There are four books.
- And pencils ?
- There are two.
- Is there one or three pictures on the wall ?
- There is only one.
- Good. Now look. There are five cars in the street.
- No, there are seven cars and nine bicycles.
- Thank you very much, Samir.

2.2

- | A | B |
|-------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Come here. | Please come here. |
| 2. Show me a bag. | Please show me a bag . |
| 3. Give me the bag. | Please give me the bag. |
| 4. Take the bag. | Please take the bag. |
| 5. Put it on the table. | Please put it on the table . |
| 6. Stand up . | Please stand up. |
| 7. Open the door. | Please open the door. |
| 8. Close the door. | Please close the door. |

2.3

A

1. Please open your book.
2. Please open your books.
3. Please open your bag.
4. Please open your bags.
5. Please open the window.
6. Please open the windows.
7. Please open the door.
8. Please open the doors.

B

- Please open it.
- Please open them.
- Please open it.
- Please open them.
- Please open it.
- Please open them.
- Please open it.
- Please open them.

2.4

A

1. Please open the windows.
2. Please close the windows.
3. Please point to a map.
4. Please point to the trees.
5. Please go to the garden.
6. Please go to the blackboard.
7. Please touch your desk.

B

- Please don't open the windows.
- Please don't close the windows.
- Please don't point to a map.
- Please don't point to the trees.
- Please don't go to the garden.
- Please don't go to the blackboard.
- Please don't touch your desk.

2.5

A

1. Please don't open that window.
2. Please don't open those windows.
3. Please don't open your bags
4. Please don't close the windows.
5. Please don't go to the blackboard.
6. Please don't touch your desk.
7. Please don't touch your desks.
8. Please don't point to the garden.
9. Please don't touch your bags.
10. Please don't go to the cinema.

B

- Please don't open it.
- Please don't open them.
- Please don't open them
- Please don't close them.
- Please don't go to it.
- Please don't touch it.
- Please don't touch them.
- Please don't point to.....
- Please don't touch.
- Please don't go to.....

2.6

1. Please point to a window.

I'm pointing to a window.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 2. Please point to the windows. | I'm pointing to the windows. |
| 3. Please go to the window. | I'm going to the window. |
| 4. Please go to the door. | I'm going to the door. |
| 5. Please open this box. | I'm opening this box. |
| 6. Please open these boxes. | I'm opening these boxes. |
| 7. Please close your bag. | I'm closing my bag. |
| 8. Please close your books. | I'm closing my books. |

2.7

A

I'm touching a desk.
 I'm touching two desks.
 I'm touching a ruler.
 I'm touching these rulers.
 I'm opening two bags.
 I'm closing a bag.
 I'm closing two bags.
 I'm pointing to a tree.
 I'm pointing to some trees.

B

I'm touching it.
 I'm touching them.
 I'm touching it.
 I'm touching them.

2.8

- | Teacher | Pupil |
|---|---------------------------------|
| 1. What's that ?
Please show it to me.
Thank you. | It's a bag.
Here it is. |
| 2. What're those ?
Please show them to me.
Thank you. | They're bags.
Here they are. |

Use these words in your conversation:
Watch, watches , rubber, rubbers,
ruler, rulers, pen, pens, pictures,
key, keys.

2.9

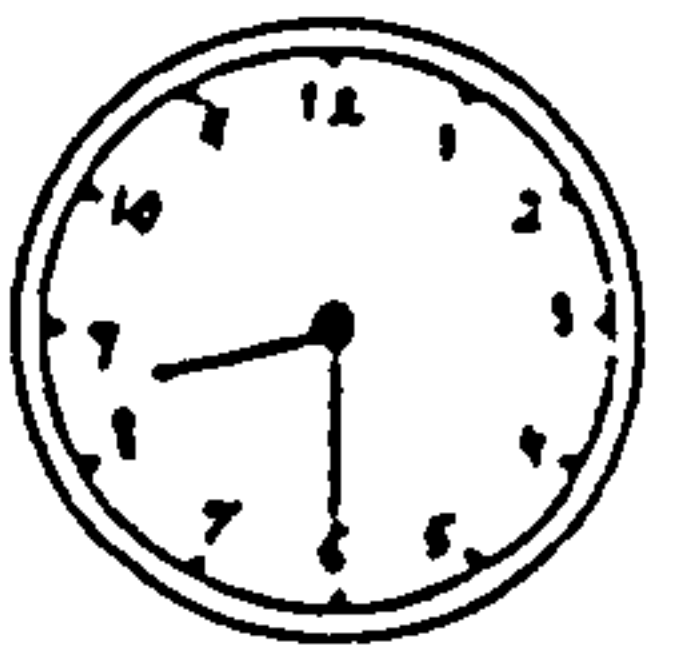
- | | |
|------------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. That is a good watch. | please show it to me. |
| 2. Those are green sweaters. | Please show.....to me. |
| 3. This is a nice picture. | Please giveto me. |
| 4. These are small keys. | Please giveto me. |
| 5. That is a new ruler. | Please showto me. |
| 6. Those are old pencils. | Please giveto me. |

2.10

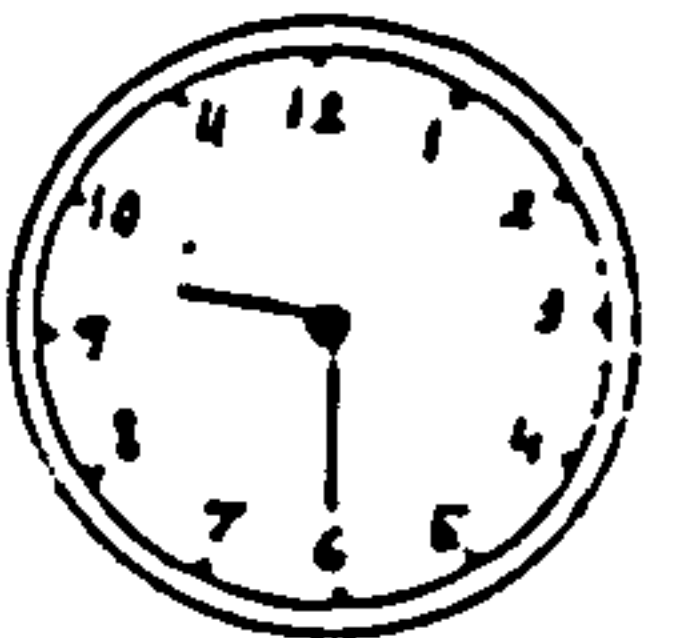
study studying
English. Arabic. history. geography.
mathematics, science.

2.11

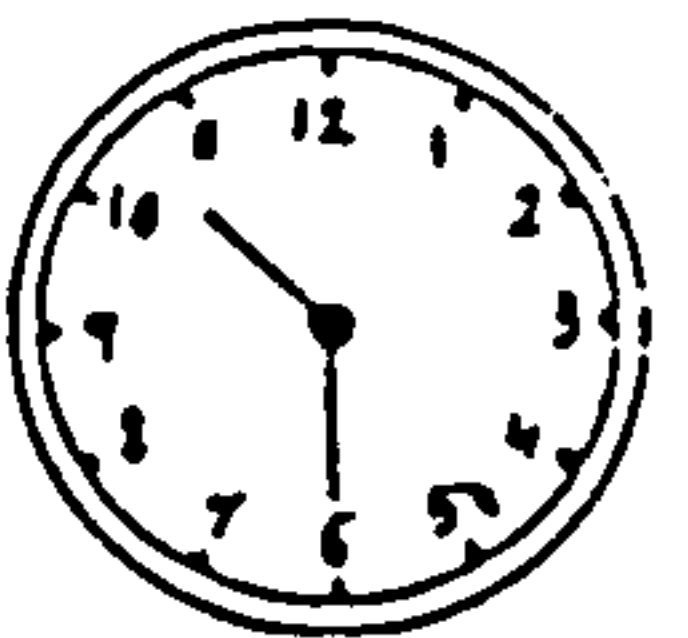
1. It's 8 : 30. He's studying English now.



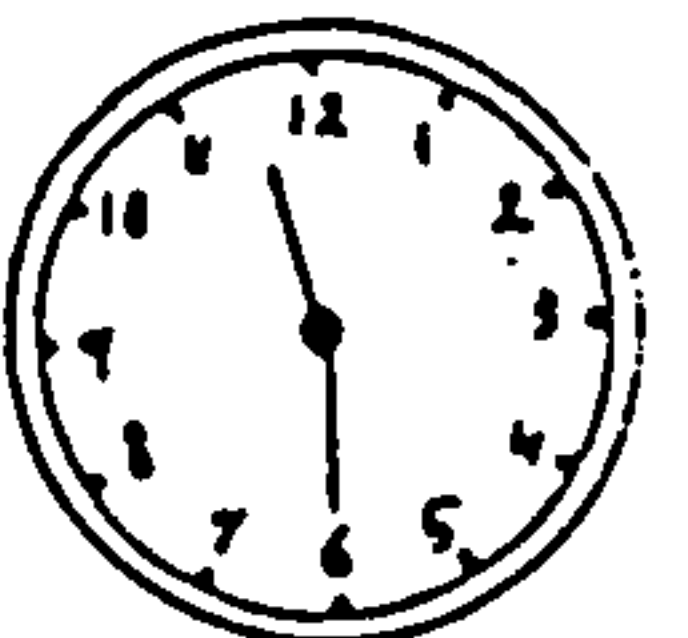
2. It's 9 : 30. He's studying Arabic now.



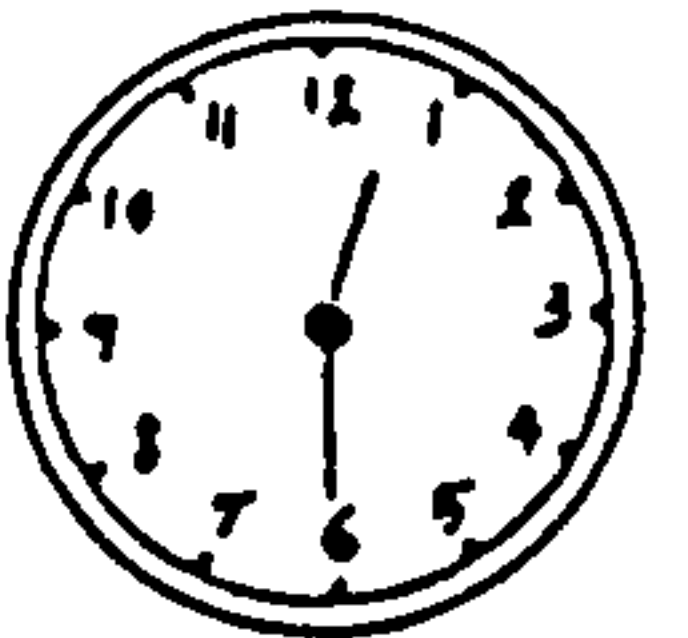
3. It's 10 : 30. He's studying history now.



4. It's 11 : 30. He's studying geography now.



5. It's 12 : 30. He's studying science now.



2.12

It's 8 : 30. What's he studying ?
He's studying English.

It's 9 : 30. What's he studying ?

He's studying Arabic.

It's 10 : 30. What's he studying ?

He's studying history.

It's 11 : 30. What's he studying ?

He's studying geography.

It's 12 : 30. What's he studying ?

He's studying science.

2.13

1. He's studying English now, and I'm studying English, too.

2. He's studying Arabic now, and I'm studying Arabic, too.

3. He's studying history now, and I'm studying history, too.

4. He's studying geography now, and I'm studying geography, too.

5. He's studying science now, and I'm studying science, too.

6. He's pointing to the ceiling, and I'm pointing to the ceiling, too.

7. He's touching the floor, and I'm touching the floor, too.

8. He's opening a bag, and I'm opening a bag, too.

2.14

1. What's he studying now ?

He's studying English.

What're you studying now?

I'm studying English, too.

2. What's he pointing to now? (the blackboard)

He's pointing to the blackboard.

What're you pointing to now?

I'm pointing to the blackboard, too.

- | | |
|----------------|----------------|
| 1. studying | English |
| 2. studying | Arabic |
| 3. pointing to | the ceiling |
| 4. pointing to | a picture |
| 5. touching | a pupil's coat |
| 6. touching | a pupil's bag |
| 7. opening | boxes |
| 8. opening | books |

Pronunciation

2.15 on box strong John clock stop Tom
what wrong orange

2.16 four wall walk tall board
corner floor morning quarter
small daughter because

2.17 clever desk dress enemy French
friend lesson men next pen
pencil red seven ten twelve

2.18 first girls merchant nurse skirts
Thursday thirty Turkey

- 2.19 1. actor builder butcher clerk
afternoon arm art fourteen
2. brother dress friend grey
3. red rich room ruler

Reading

2.20

Teacher : Good morning, Samir.
Samir : Good morning, sir.
Teacher : How are you today ?
Samir : Very well, thank you, sir.
And you ?
Teacher : I am fine, thank you Samir.

2.21 This is a book. It's my book. It's mine.
It's my English book. I like it very much.

like احب

Writing
Manual II, Lesson 3.

The Dialogue

4.1

- Good morning Ali.
- Good morning, Suha.
- Are you busy just now?
- No, I'm not but why do you ask?
- Do you want to come with me to my school? We have a party.
It's the seventh of April, you know.
- Are you going to take part in this party?
- Yes, I am.
- Just a minute. I'm coming with you.

4.2

The dialogue in 1.1.

Oral Practice

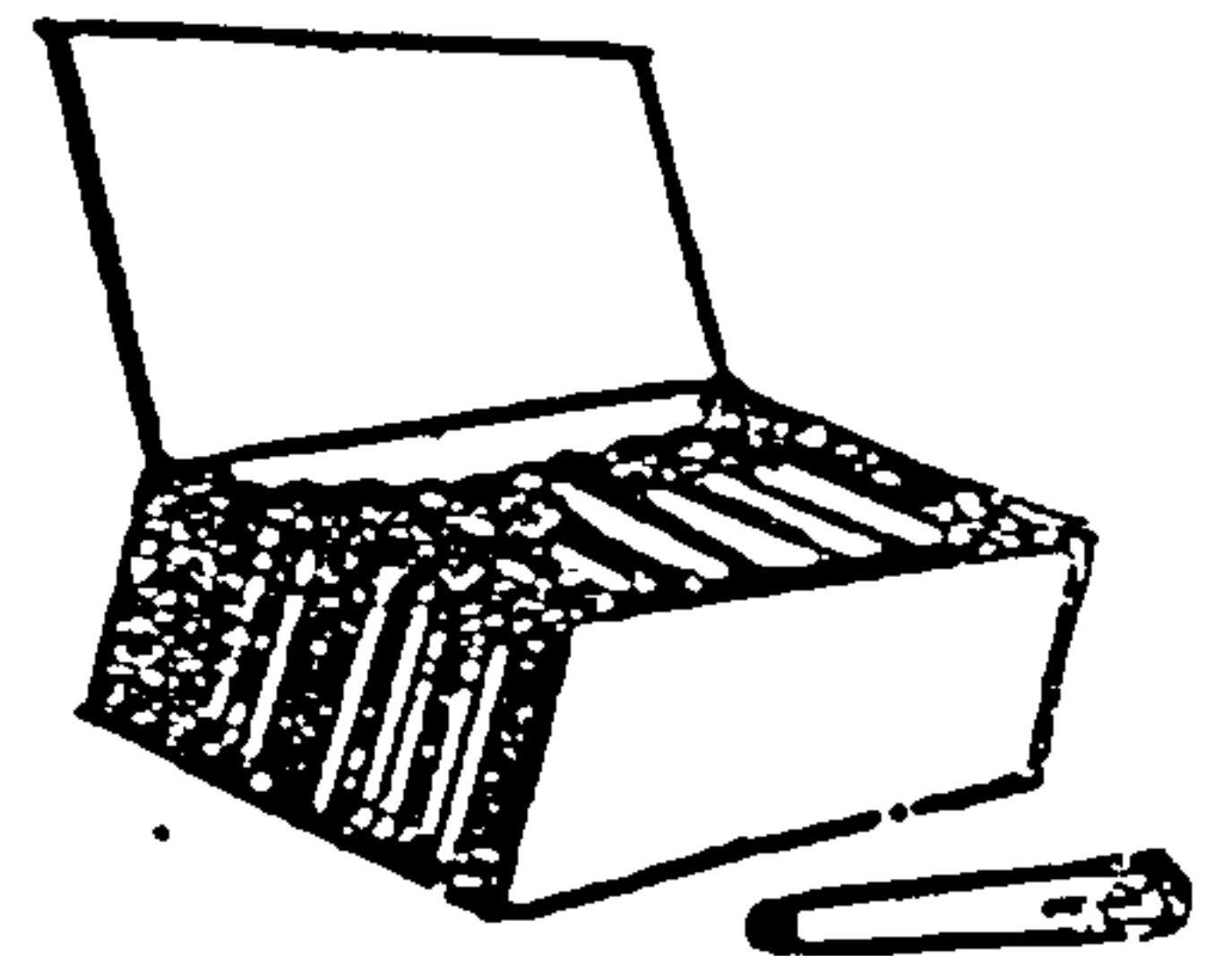
4.3

1. What's there in this box?

There's chalk in this box.

How much chalk is there in this box?

There's a lot of chalk in this box.



2. What's there in this bottle?

There's milk in this bottle.

How much milk is there in this bottle?

There's a lot of milk in this bottle.

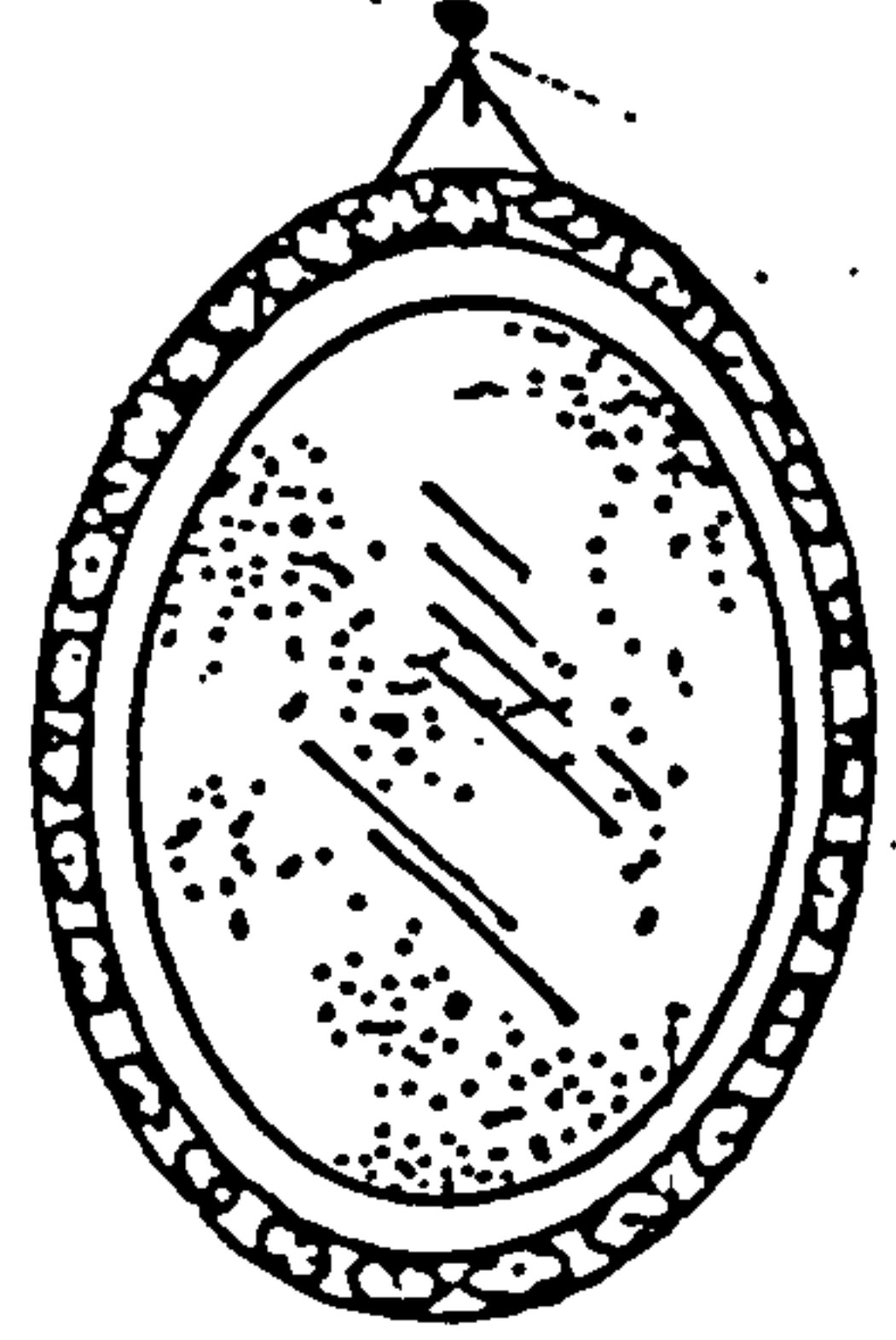


2. What's there on this mirror?

There's dust on this mirror.

How much dust is there on this mirror?

There's a lot of dust on this mirror.



4. What's there on this boot?

There's mud on this boot.

How much mud is there on this boot?

There's a little mud on this boot.

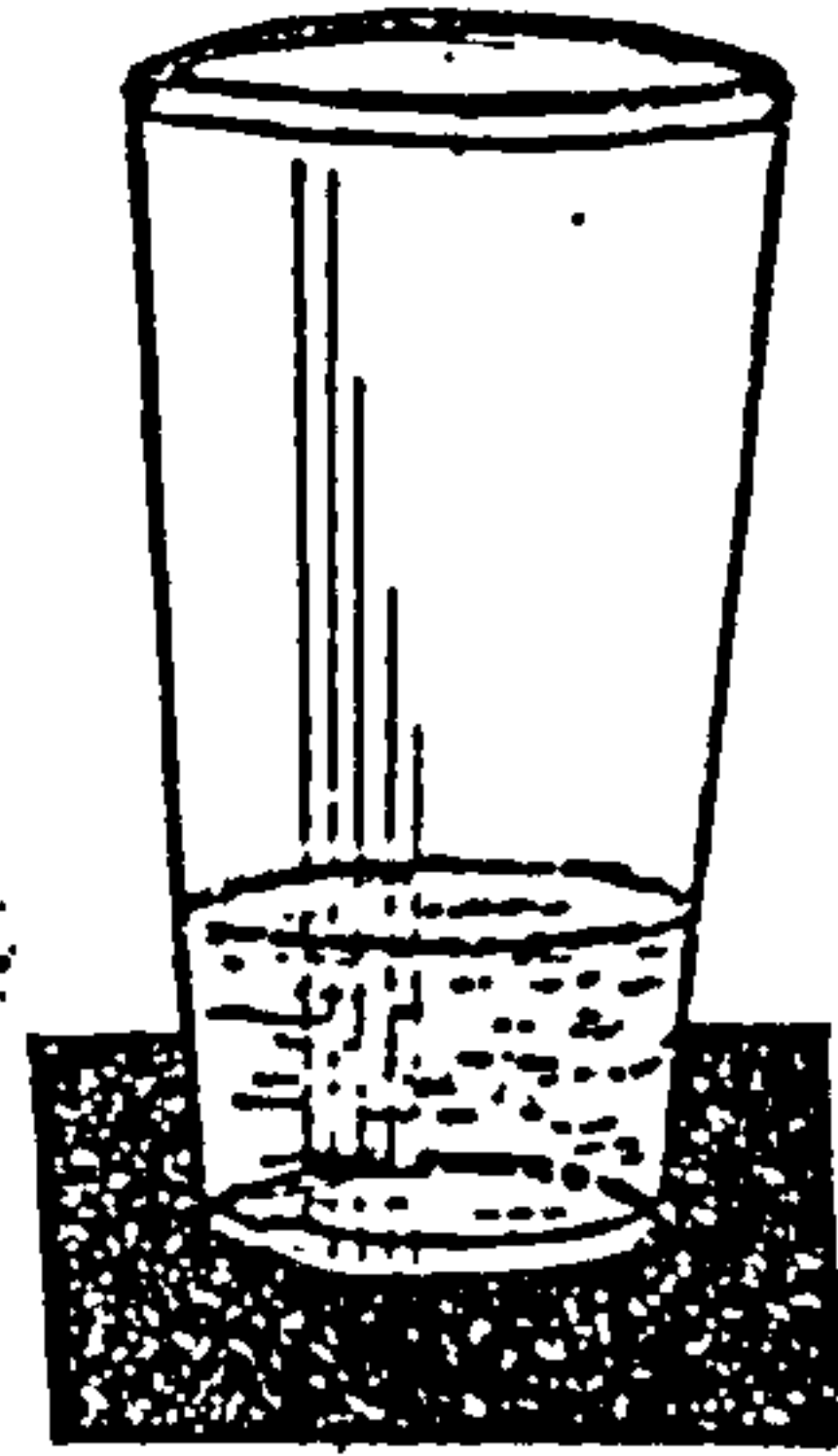


5. What's there in this glass?

There's water in this glass.

How much water is there in this glass?

There's a little water in this glass.



طين mud جزمة boot غبار dust مرآة mirror

4.4

1. Ali's father is a mechanic.
What about Yousif's father?
He's a mechanic, too.
2. Ali's sister is healthy.
What about Yousif's sister?
She's healthy, too.
3. Ali's teacher is clever.
What about Yousif's teacher?
He's clever, too.
4. Ali's mother is a nurse.
What about Yousif's mother?
She's a nurse, too.

4.5

There are many inkpots on the table.
There's a lot of ink in them.
There are many boxes on the table.
There's a lot of chalk in them.
There are many baskets in this shop.
There's a lot of fruit in them.
There are many jugs on the table.
There's a lot of water in them.

4.6

Your father is a farmer, isn't he?	Yes, he is.
Your father isn't a doctor, is he?	No, he isn't.
You're thirteen years old, aren't you?	Yes, I am.
You aren't sixteen years old, are you?	No, I'm not.
You're all sitting, aren't you?	Yes, we are.
You aren't standing, are you?	No, we aren't.
There's a lot of money in a bank, isn't there?	Yes, there is.
There isn't a lot of money in a hospital, is there?	No, there isn't.
There are pupils in a school, aren't there?	Yes, there are.
There aren't doctors in a school, are there?	No, there aren't.

4.7

You have six English classes a week, don't you?

Yes, we do.

You don't have six history classes a week, do you?

No, we don't.

Your brother has a new bicycle, doesn't he?

Yes, he does.

Your brother doesn't have a new car, does he?

No, he doesn't.

A butcher sells meat, doesn't he?

Yes, he does.

A butcher doesn't sell fruit, does he?

No, he doesn't.

Bakers sell bread, don't they?

Yes, they do.

Bakers don't sell meat, do they?

No, they don't.

4.8

1		2	
mechanic	mechanics	farmer	farmers
month	months	boy	boys
roof	roofs	lesson	lessons
pocket	pockets	road	roads
stamp	stamps	season	seasons
3		4	
sandwich	sandwiches	policeman	policemen
piece	pieces	child	children
price	prices	knife	knives
cottage	cottages	loaf	loaves
horse	horses	tooth	teeth

4.9

1. I'm going to draw a cat on the blackboard.
I'm drawing it now.

2. I'm going to write on the blackboard.
I'm writing on it now.

3. I'm going to touch my head.

_____ now.

4. I'm going to put these books on the desk.

_____ now.

5. I'm going to put my hand on the table.

_____ now.

4.10

1. Are you going to play football this afternoon?

No, I'm not going to play football this afternoon.

What are you going to do this afternoon?

I'm going to go to the library.

2. Is Bushra going to study in the library?

No, she isn't going to study in the library.

Who's going to study in the library?

Nada is going to study in the library.

4.11

1. What do you want to eat?

Please bring me some bread and butter.

2. What do you want to eat?

Please bring me some soup and meat.

3. What do you want to drink?

Please give me some orange juice.

4. What do you want to listen to?

I want to listen to some music.

5. What do you want to buy?

I want to buy some fruit.

4.12

When is Zeid going to have breakfast?

He's going to have breakfast at seven.

What's he going to have for breakfast?

He's going to have bread, milk and eggs.

When are you going to have lunch?
 I'm going to have lunch at one o'clock.
 What are you going to have for lunch?
 I'm going to have soup, bread and meat.

When are they going to have dinner?
 They're going to have dinner at seven o'clock.
 What are they going to have for dinner?
 They're going to have bread, chicken and oranges.

Pronunciation

4.13

diamond fire science tired

4.14

flower hour Howard our ours

4.15

Here's Sarah.
 Mary's really there.

4.16

January February poor fewer

4.17

heart: not
 sharp: shop
 part: pot

4.18

cut: Kate
 come: came
 run: rain

Writing

4.19

English Handwriting Manual III, Lesson 10.

4.20

Lesson 11.

4.21

Lesson 12..

Written Homework

4.22

Add tail-questions to the following sentences as in the first example.

1. There is a man in the room, isn't there?
2. There are three boys in the garden, _____ ?
3. There is not much milk in the glass, _____ ?
4. There are not many flowers in the garden, _____ ?
5. Ali is a mechanic, _____ ?
6. Ali is not a pupil, _____ ?
7. These girls help their mothers every day, _____ ?
8. Muna washes the dishes every day, _____ ?
9. The pupils do their homework every day, _____ ?
10. The girls clean the windows every morning, _____ ?
11. Samir has a red bicycle, _____ ?
12. The pupils have new sweaters _____ ?

4.23

Write the following sentences as in (b)

(a) I am going to write my homework.

(b) I am writing my homework now.

1. He is going to draw a cat.
2. Nada is going to clean the windows
3. Mazin is going to paint the walls.
4. The teacher is going to write on the blackboard.

5. Nada and Samir are going to ~~stay at home~~.
6. The workers are going to rest tomorrow.
7. The pupils are going to read.
8. The teachers are going to watch television.
9. The doctors are going to have lunch.
10. The engineers are going to drink tea.

4.24

Change the following sentences into the plural as in the first two examples:

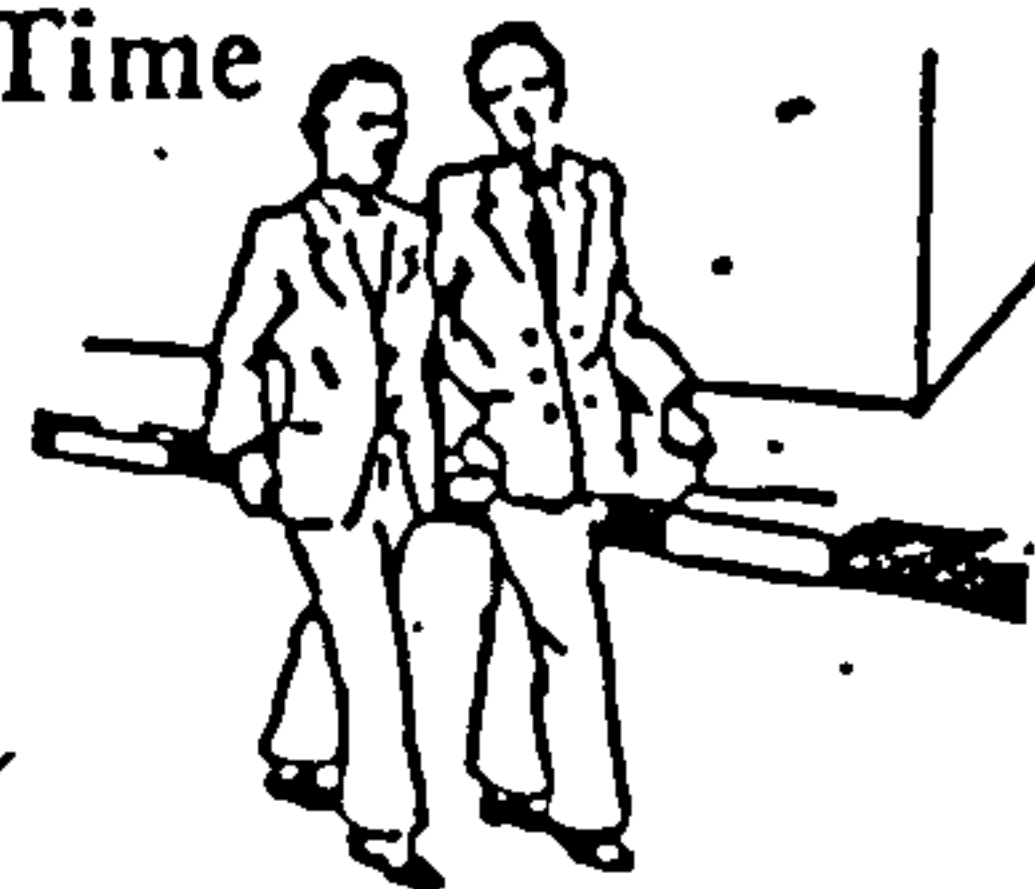
1. A baker sells bread.
Bakers sell bread.
2. There is a book on this desk.
There are books on these desks.
3. This woman is a nurse.
4. This man is a policeman.
5. This girl reads a story every day.
6. A butcher sells meat.
7. This pupil studies Arabic every day.
8. This teacher has a new car.
9. The pilot bought a new shirt.
10. The nurse is sitting in her room.
11. This child eats a loaf of bread every day.
12. The typist is typing a letter now.

UNIT SEVEN

THE DIALOGUE

7.1 Meeting a Friend after a Long Time

- Hello, Sami.
 — Hello, Shakir.
 — I haven't seen you for ages.
 — You're right. I've been in Basrah.
 I work for the National Oil Company in Rumeila now.
 — Are you going back?
 — Yes, next week. I'm on holiday now.
 — Well, enjoy yourself.
 — Thank you.



for ages

you're right

the National Oil Company

enjoy yourself.

منذ زمن طويل

انت على صواب

شركة النفط الوطنية

ارجو لك وقتاً ممتعاً

ORAL PRACTICE

7.2

1. Lift this table, Ali.
 I can't lift it.
 Please help him to lift it.
2. Carry this box, Muna.
 I can't carry it.
 Please help her to carry it.
3. Do this exercise, Majid.
 I can't do it.
 Please help him to do it.

4. Answer my question, Salim.
I can't answer it.
Please help him to answer it.

7.3

1. What did he ask you?
He asked me not to wait.
2. What did he ask them?
He asked them not to talk.
3. What did he ask her?
He asked her not to go
4. What did he advise you?
He advised me not to be late.
5. What did the teacher advise the pupils?
He advised them not to be late.
6. What did you advise him?
I advised him not to be late.

7.4

1. It's very hot ; therefore, I'll go swimming.
2. This car is very expensive; therefore, they can't buy it.
3. This dictionary is very useful; therefore, every pupil should buy it.
4. The meeting was very important; therefore, every worker attended it.

7.5

1. Why can't you touch the ceiling?
Because I'm not tall enough.
2. Why can't she lift this table?
Because she's not strong enough.
3. Why didn't you buy the house?

| _____ big _____.

4. Why didn't they pass the exam?

_____ clever _____

5. Why didn't he become a policeman?

_____ tall _____

7.6

1. How much rice do you want?

I want half a kilo.

2. How many eggs do you want?

I want half a dozen.

3. How much cement do you want?

I want half a ton.

4. How many bags of cement does the factory produce every year?

It produces half a million bags.

5. How much tea do you want?

I want two and a half kilos.

6. How many kilos of potatoes do you want?

I want three and a half kilos.

7.7

1. What's the third letter of the word umbrella?

B is the third letter.

2. What's the third month of the year?

March is the third month.

3. What's the third English letter?

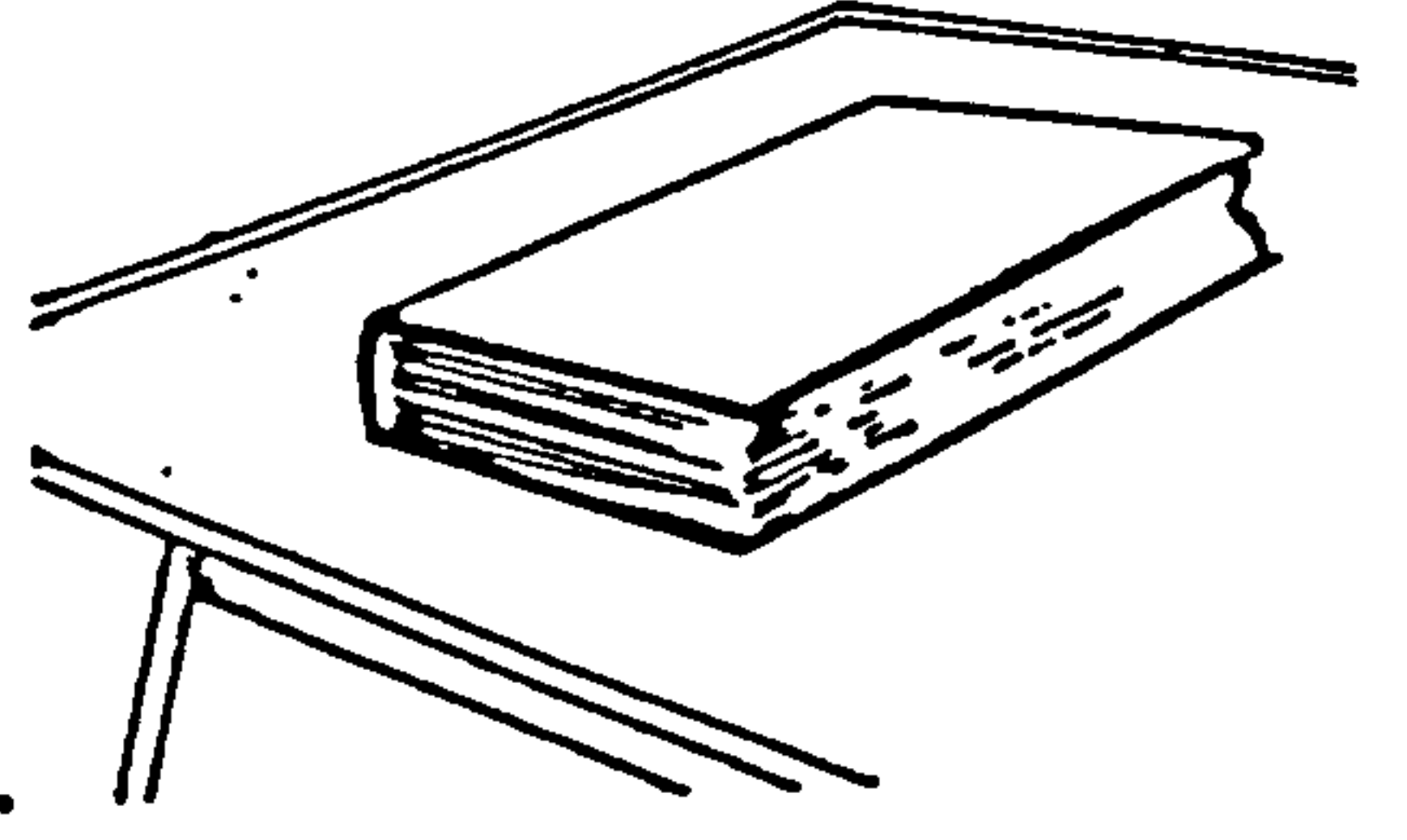
C is the third English letter.

4. Is this a first-class train ticket?

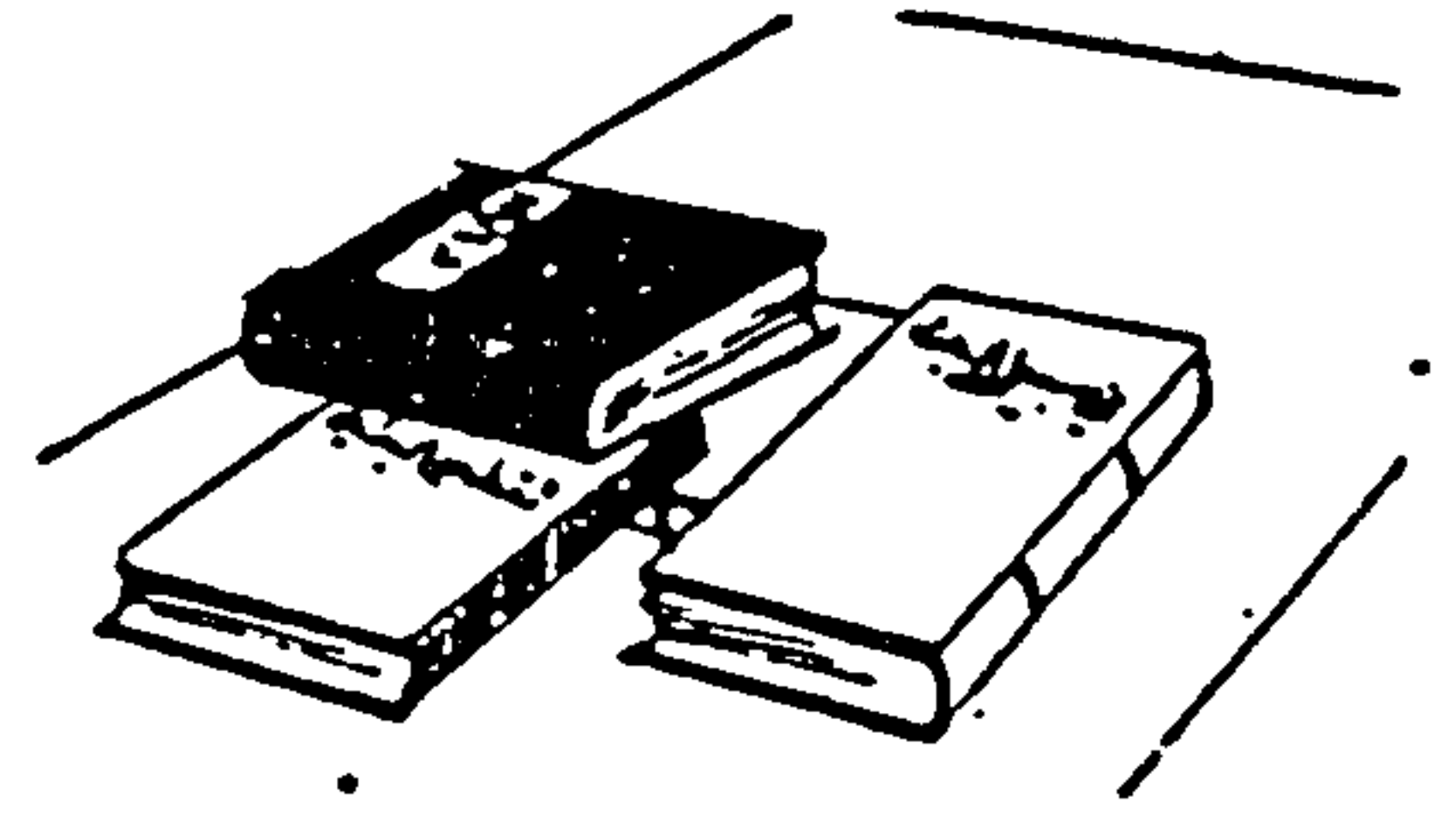
No, it's a third-class ticket.

7.8

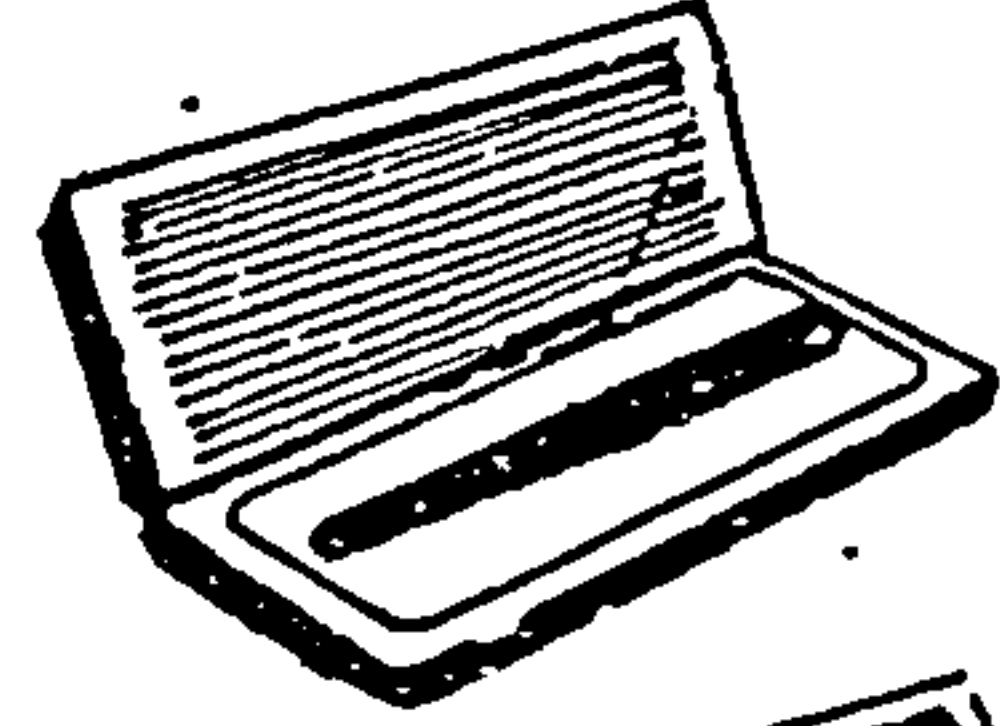
1. The book on the desk is thick.



2. The books on the table are Arabic books.



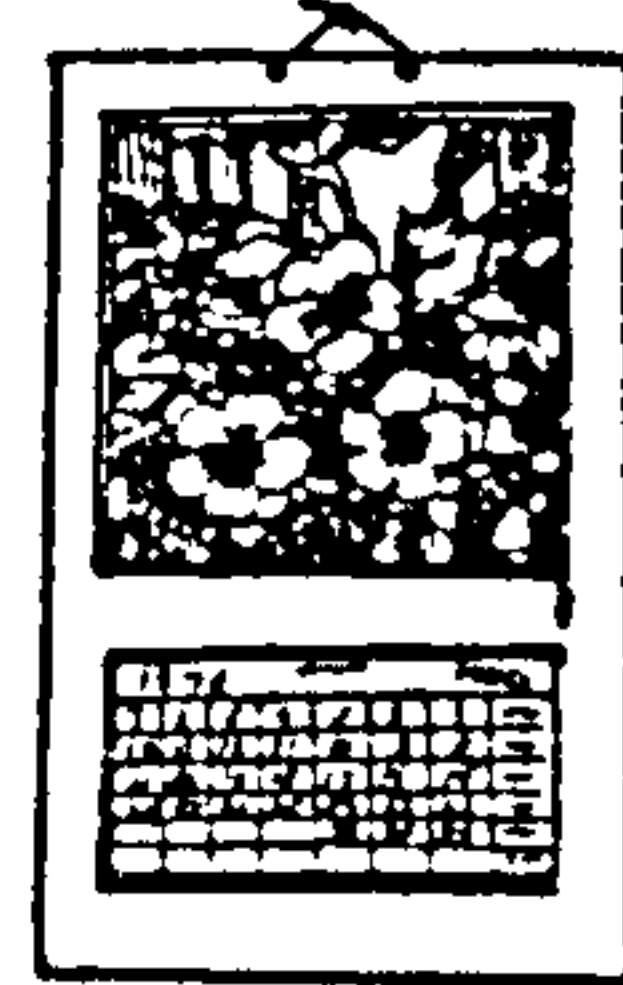
3. The pen in the box is Ahmed's.



4. The pens in the pencil case are mine.



5. The calendar on the wall is new.



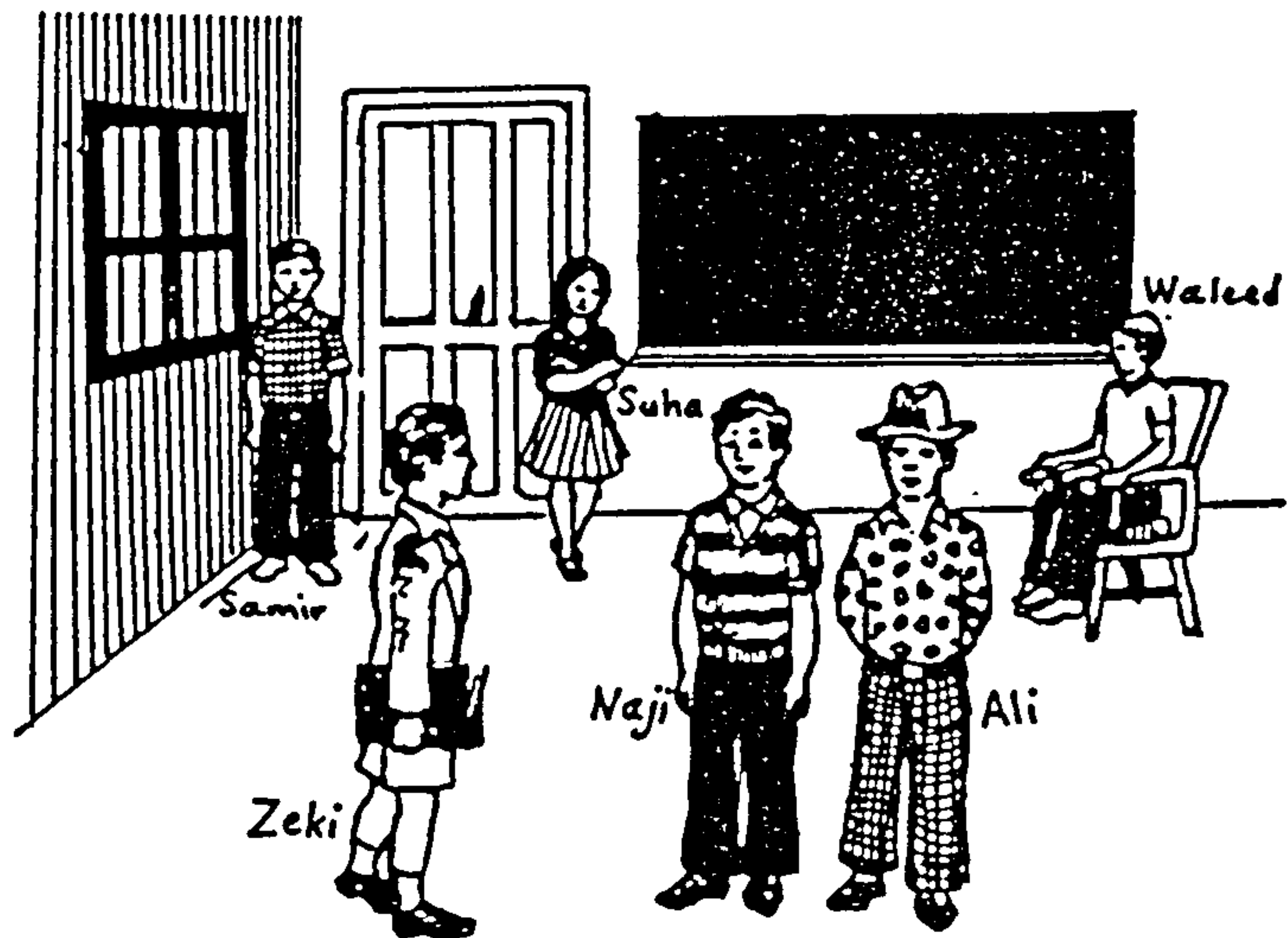
6. The picture on the wall is beautiful.



pencil case

مقلمة

7.9



1. What's the name of the boy wearing a hat?
The boy wearing a hat is Ali.
2. What's the name of the boy wearing a sweater?
The boy wearing a sweater is Naji.
3. What's the name of the boy standing by the window?
The boy standing by the window is Samir.
4. What's the name of the girl standing near the door?
The name of the girl standing near the door is Suha.
5. What's the name of the boy holding a book?
The name of the boy holding a book is Zeki.

7.10

1. I want a duster.
What for?
I want a duster to clean the blackboard.
2. We need some flour.
What for?
We need some flour to make a cake.
3. They need some ink.
What for?

They need some ink to fill their pens .

4. Lend me ten dinars, please .

What for ?

To buy a new coat .

5 . Bring me the scissors , please .

What for ?

To cut the string

6 . Bring me the opener, please .

What for ?

To open the bottle .

7.11 .

1. Would you mind not saying that word again ?

2. Would you mind not talking ?

3. Would you mind not sitting there ?

4. Would you mind not singing ?

5. Would you mind not clapping ?

PRONUNCIATION

7.12

obeying weighing paying playing

7.13

power Howard hour flower

WRITTEN HOMEWORK

7.14

Re-write the following figures, using words, as in the example below:

$2\frac{1}{2}$ days = two and a half days

1. $3\frac{1}{2}$ months = _____

2. $4\frac{1}{2}$ kilos of rice = _____

7.15

3. $5\frac{1}{2}$ dozen eggs = _____

4. $10\frac{1}{2}$ miles = _____

Answer the following questions:

1. What's the third day of the week in Iraq ?
2. What's the third day of the week in England ?
3. What's the third month of the year ?
4. — I bought a pen.
— What for ?
— _____.
5. — He bought three books.
— What for ?
— _____.

7.16

Read the following passage carefully:

Yesterday afternoon Ahmed got home from school at 1 o'clock. He had his lunch at half past one, then he read a short story. At 3 o'clock he went to his room and did his homework. Later, one of his friends visited him. They sat together and talked about school. Then his mother brought them tea. Finally, his friend left at 7 o'clock.

Now write a paragraph of your own saying what you did yesterday. Use the following words to join your sentences:

then, later, after that, finally.

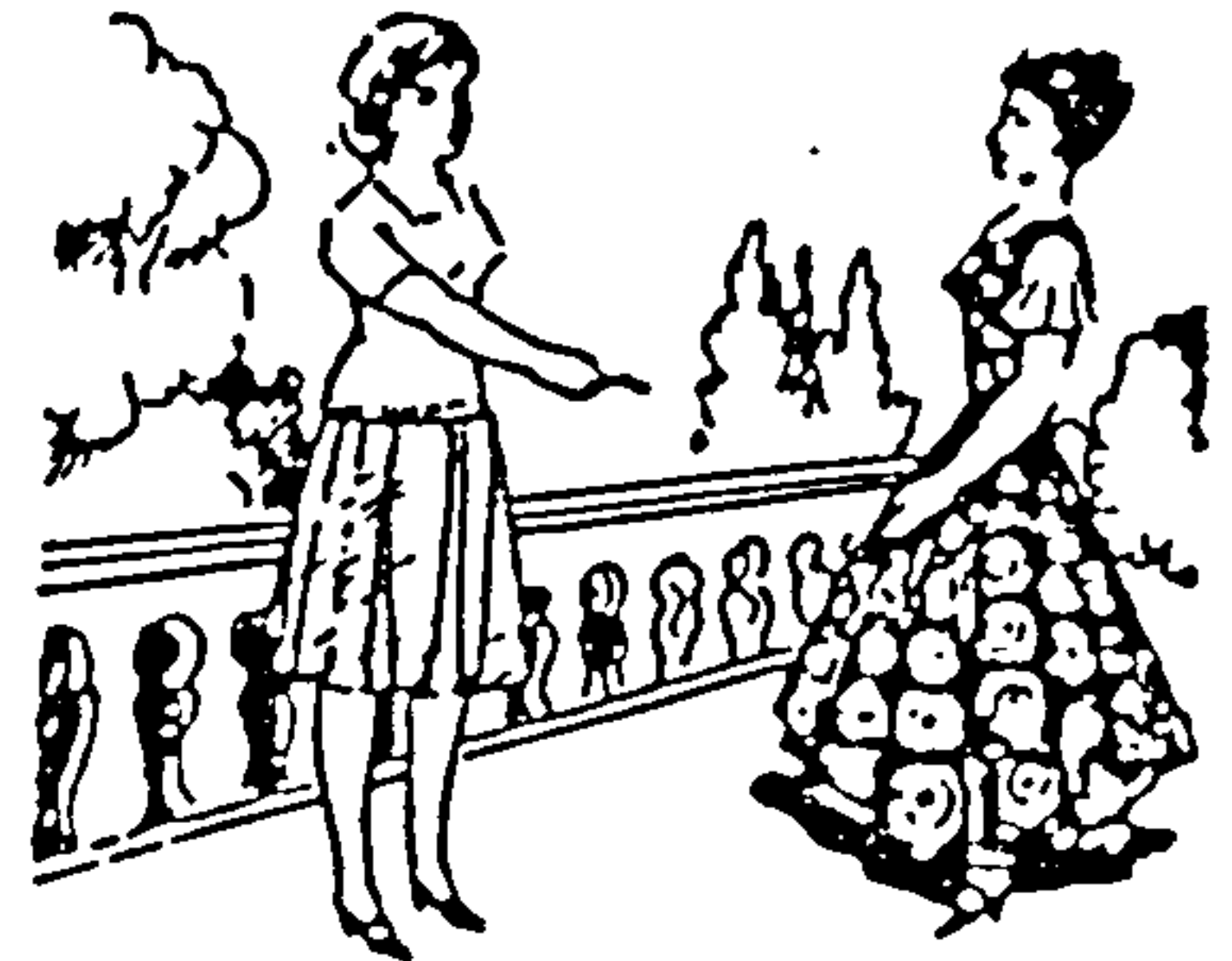
UNIT NINE

The Dialogue

9.1 The dialogue in 8.2.

9.2 Student's Day

- Hello, Layla.
- Hello, Shatha. Oh, What a pretty dress !
Are you going to a party ?
- No, I'm going to the N . U . I . S . Y
It's Student's Day , you know, and there is a good play on.
- Oh. What is the subject of the play?
- It's about the role of students at home and in society .
- This has often been stressed by our beloved Leader, President Saddam Hussein .
- In one of his speeches he says , " We do aspire to see students initiate in their homes a new pattern of life arising from the A.B.S.P's principles."



Student's Day

عيد الطالب

role

دور

society

مجتمع

aspire

يطمح ، بصبر

initiate

يبدأ ، يستهل

principles

مبادئ

Oral Practice

9.3

1. Shall I see you at your house?
Yes, you can see me at my house at seven.
2. Shall I meet you near the cinema?
Yes, you can meet me there at four.
3. Shall I bring the letter?
Yes, you can bring it here in the morning.
4. Shall I bring the radio tomorrow?
Yes, you can bring it here tomorrow.
5. Shall I bring the book soon?
Yes, you can bring it here soon. :::

Yes, you can come here at seven.

9.4

1. That man was rude to me.
All the same, you didn't have to hit him.
2. That man was rude to Zeki and Ali.
All the same, they didn't have to hit him.
3. That man was rude to them.
All the same, they didn't have to hit him.
4. That man was rude to us.
All the same, you didn't have to hit him.

rude فظ
all the same مع ذلك

9.5

1. Why are you speaking to her so angrily?
Because she spoke to me angrily yesterday.
Why are you speaking to her so rudely?
Because she spoke to me rudely yesterday.
2. Why are you treating him so severely?
Because he treated me severely last time.
Why are you treating him so nicely?
Because he treated me nicely last time.
3. Why are you speaking to them so kindly?
Because they spoke to me kindly last week.
Why are you speaking to them so unkindly?
Because they spoke to me unkindly last week.

angrily	بغضب	rudely	بخشونة
nicely	بإلف	unkindly	بدون شفقة

9.6

1. What time did they arrive?
Tell her what time they arrived.
How did they arrive?
Tell her how they arrived.
When did the boys finish the work?
Tell her when the boys finished the work.
2. Why didn't he do his homework?
I wonder why he didn't do his homework.
How did she go to the zoo?
I wonder how she went to the zoo.
When did they go to the market?
I wonder when they went to the market.

3. How much sugar is there?
I don't know how much sugar there is.
How many boys are there in the class?
I don't know how many boys there are in the class.
How far is it from here to the library?
I don't know how far it is from here to the library.

- 9.7
1. Doctors treat patients.
We go to doctors for treatment.
 2. He didn't move.
He made no movement.
 3. The patient is improving rapidly.
We all notice his rapid improvement.
 4. Iraq is developing rapidly.
We all notice its rapid development.

treatment	معالجة	improvement	تحسن
movement	حركة	'development	نمو ، تطوّر

Reading

9.8

A BLIND BOY

S.1 I had a dozen brothers and sisters, but I seemed to have a special place among them. I do not now remember whether I was pleased or displeased with the special treatment I got from my parents. My mother was especially kind to me and my father treated me kindly. My brothers and sisters were a little careful in their treatment of me and in their conversation with me. I often felt they were not telling me everything they ought to tell their brother. But I also sometimes felt that my mother was rather careless and that my father was not interested in me. They often seemed to forget that I was in the room with the rest of the family. This, together with too much kindness from my parents, puzzled me and often gave me great pain.

S.2 When I was a very little boy, I did not understand the reason for this special treatment. But I soon knew. My brothers and sisters could do many things that I could not do. My mother allowed them to do some things that I was never allowed to do. At first this made me angry and jealous. But



soon my anger and jealousy changed into a deep sadness that I could not get rid of. I learnt that they could describe things I could not even imagine, because they could see those things but I couldn't. I was blind.

S.3 From early childhood I was a very curious boy. I always tried to discover new things by myself, but my actions often brought many troubles. One day something happened that changed my life. Since then my curiosity has not been so strong, and I have become quite shy. I was sitting at supper with the whole family. Mother asked the maid and my sisters to serve food. We soon started to eat. I had always eaten just like the others. But a strange thought came into my mind at that moment. «Why don't I try to eat with both hands instead of one? Why don't I try? Why don't I try?»

As soon as I tried to do this, all my brothers and sisters began to laugh. My mother began to cry, and my father said quickly but very sadly, «That is not the way to eat, my dear son». I couldn't sleep at all that night.

Since then I have become very careful in what I do and I have become a very shy person. I now do not eat any kind of food that may embarrass me in front of strangers. I know now what I can do and what I cannot do.

special	خاصة	childhood	طفولة
pleased	راض	curiosity	حب الاستطلاع
displeased	غير راض	shy	خجول

especially	بصورة خاصة	maid	خادمة
puzzled me	حيرني	thought (n.)	فكرة
rest (n.)	البقية	came into	انت
pain (n.)	الم	mind	عقل
describe	يصف	embarrass	يجرج
imagine	يتصور	strangers	غرباء

Spelling

9.9

1. The camel is not a wild animal.
Is the camel a desert animal? Yes, it is.
Where does it usually live? It lives in the desert.
The camel is not a small animal, is it? No, it isn't.
It's large, isn't it? Yes, it is.
2. I saw a fine Arab horse yesterday.
What a beautiful animal it was!
I saw that horse run for several minutes in the races.
How fast it ran!
What a fast runner it was!

Written Homework

9.10

Re-write the following statements. If the statement is true

write true , if not write false . Correct the false items .

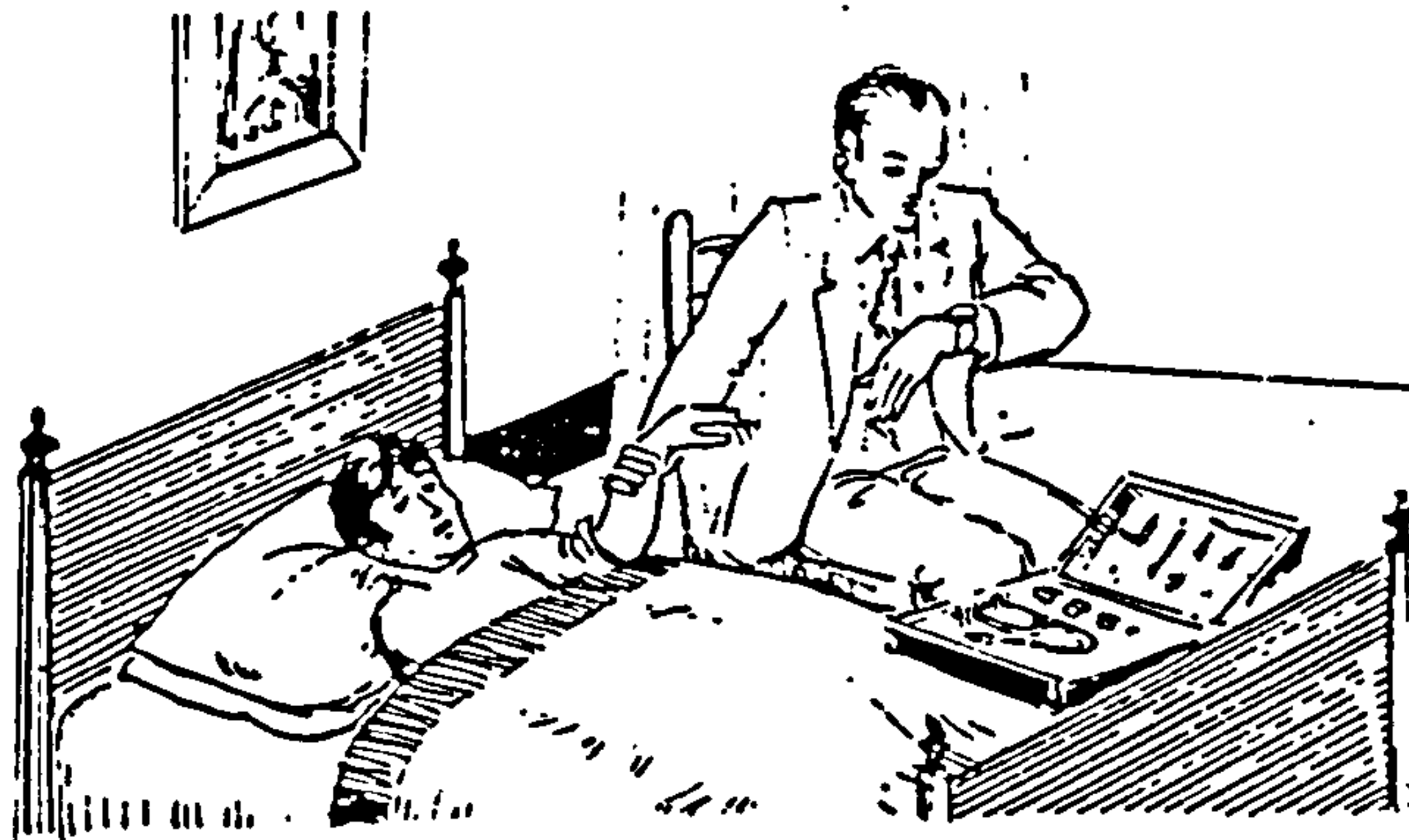
1. The writer had twelve brothers and sisters.
2. The special treatment gave the writer great happiness.
3. The writer was given special treatment because he could not do many things that others could do.
4. When the writer ate with both hands everybody laughed.
5. The writer learnt that he could describe things that others could not describe.
6. The writer could not describe things that others could describe because he was blind.
7. The special treatment the writer got puzzled him but gave him pleasure .
8. His mother allowed him to do things that his brothers

were not allowed to do.

9. His mother treated him very kindly but his father did not.

10.«I often felt that they were not telling me everything». They means the writer's brothers and sisters.

9.11 Examine the following picture and then answer the questions below. Write your answers in the form of a paragraph.



1. Who is lying in bed, a little boy or a little girl?
2. Who is sitting on a chair by the bed?
- 3 What is the doctor holding in his right hand ?
4. What is the doctor looking at ?
5. Where is the doctor's bag?
6. Is the bag full of medicine or full of books?

9.12 Re-write the following sentences putting the words in brackets in the correct order.

Example:

(young, two, the) boys are here.

The two young boys are here.

1. (six, the, all) girls are here.
2. (of, all, these) boys are my pupils.
3. (many, these, of) girls are from Baghdad.
4. (of, much, his) money was wasted.
5. (several, these, of) pupils are my friends.

9.13 Complete and re-write these sentences as in the example below :

He moved a lot .

He moved a lot of movement .

1. I enjoyed it very much . It gave me a lot of——

2. They pay him 100 dinars a month . He gets a monthly—— of 100 dinars .

3. She encouraged me . She gave me ——

4. He agreed with me about it . We reached an—— about it .

5. We enjoyed the Babylon Festival very much . It gave us a lot of—— .

6. Iraq has developed a lot since the 17 th July Revolution . There are signs of—— everywhere .

9.14 Re-write these sentences as in the example below:

A. «Where shall we meet on Saturday?» John asked Mary.

B. John asked Mary where they would meet on Saturday.

1. «What have you bought for Mary's birthday?» I asked my mother.

2. «Whose book has Betty borrowed?» father asked.

3. «Which of the films have you seen?» my friend asked me.

4. «When will you pay back the money?» Peter asked me.

5. «How far is Baghdad from Basrah?» John asked us.

UNIT NINE

Dialogue

9.1 Asking about Health

– How's your brother these days ?

– He's not feeling very well.

– Really ? What's the trouble ?

– I think he's been overworking .

– Tell him I hope he soon feels better .

... – Thank you very much. I'll tell him what you said.

Pronunciation

English Diphthongs

9.2 /oi/ is found in such words as:

oil, oily, ointment; boil, soil,
noise; boy, toy, employ.

9.3 Notice the difference between /o:/ and /oi/ in
the following pairs of words :

all	ball	bore	tore
oil	boil	boy	toy

9.4 /ia/ is found in such words as:

ears, clearly, feared; we're, near.

9.5 Notice the difference between /ə:/ and /ie/ in
the following pairs of words :

were	her	bird
we're	here	beard

9.6 /uə/ is found in such words as

sure, purely, doer; fewer, pure, poor

9.7 /eə/ is found in such words as:

air, aeroplane, scarcely; Mary,
fair, bear.

9.8 Notice the difference between /uə/ and /eə/ in
the following pairs of words :

doer	poor	sure
dare	pair	share

- 9.9 The following is a complete list of English diphthongs:
 /ou/, /au/, /ai/, /ei/, /oi/, /i ə /, /u ə /
 and /e ə /.

ointment
 share

مرعم
 حصة

Oral Practice

9.10

Structure Notes

Words like in, on, to, at, with, by, of, for, over, before, round, up, down, after, etc., are called "prepositions" when used before nouns or pronouns. The nouns or pronouns that come after them are their "objects". Sometimes groups of words like in front of and instead of are also used as prepositions.

preposition

حرف جر

The Situation

1. The opening of the National Assembly on June 30 is not a mere coincidence - it is the day on which our people kindled the torch of the Revolution of 1920.
 (President Saddam Hussein)
- 2.— Salim went up the hill with Samir at six o'clock yesterday.
 - Did you say he went with Samir or without Samir?
 - He went with him.
 - Was that on a Monday in June?
 - No, it was yesterday. They sat there for an hour. There was a tree behind them, and in front of them there was a beautiful valley.

Self-Expression

- A. Say these sentences using one of the given words :

1. There's nothing wrong with _____. (he/him)
2. She came with _____. (us/we)
3. He sat by _____. (me/I)
4. I saw him walking behind _____. (I/me)
5. There were two people in addition to _____. (I/you)
6. We were sent instead of _____. (they/them)

B. Answer these questions using him, her, me, them, etc., instead of the nouns.

1. Did you fall in with the doctor?
Yes, I shall fall in with him .
2. Can I make up for the damage?
Yes, you can _____ .
3. Are you leaving for the village?
Yes, _____ .
4. Have you run out of matches?
Yes, _____ .
5. Did you catch up with Haitham?
No, _____ .
6. Can you put up with all this noise?
No, _____ .
7. Do you get on well with your monitor?
No, _____ .
8. Can you do without these books?
Yes, _____ .
9. Did you go before Suha?
Yes, _____ .
10. Did he arrive before or after the boys?
He arrived _____ .

fall in with	التقيت صدقة
make up for	يعوض عن
catch up with	يلحق بـ
put up with	يتحمل
get on well with	يجاري بصورة جيدة
do without	يستغنى عن

9.11 Structure Notes

Words like and, or, whenever, until, but, when,

that, whether, while, etc., can join two words or two groups of words. Sometimes groups of words such as as well as, as soon as, etc., also connect words or groups of words together. Such words and groups of words are called "conjunctions" or "connectors".

connect

conjunction = connector

يربط
أداة ربط

The Situation



Mary and John were in Berlin last June.
While they were in Berlin they saw many interesting places.

One evening they were not sure whether they should go to a restaurant or to a music hall.
Mary suggested that they should take a walk, but John refused.

When they were about to get angry with each other, their friend Hans arrived.

He told them that they were invited to his house to meet people from Berlin as well as people from Dresden and Halle.

Self-Expression

Join each two groups of words using the connector given.

1. I'll wait in the car. He'll get some sweets. (while)
I'll wait in the car while he gets some sweets.

2. They'll come to town. They'll visit us. (whenever)
Whenever they come to town, they'll visit us.
3. They'll know you. They'll see you. (as soon as)
4. You'll read this letter. You'll be surprised. (when)
5. I shan't speak to you. You will apologize. (until)
6. He told me. Your mother was coming. (that)
7. She asked me. I liked to go out. (whether)
8. You come. I go. (if)
9. Type it. Bring it to me. (and then)
10. Speak to him. Don't shout. (but)
11. You go. I'll give you the book. (before)
12. You learn to swim. You'll never forget. (once)
13. Keep quiet. Go away. (or)
14. I finish it. I'll let you see it. (after)
15. You went out. The rain stopped. (before)

9.12 Listening Comprehension

9.13 Reading Comprehension

Pollution

Pollution means making the environment in which man lives dirty and unclean. It refers to the ways in which our natural surroundings are harmed by cars, sewage, industrial waste, and noise. It also refers to the effects of all this on our health, weather and future resources.

Man has probably been polluting the environment since he appeared on earth. But the increase in population and the growth in industry have created the serious problem of pollution. Some scientists believe that pollution threatens the very existence of life on this planet.

Air pollution is the result of millions of tons of waste materials which are poured into the air by factories, furnaces and motor vehicles. Harmful material in the air can cause damage to the lungs, heart and other organs.

Another serious problem is water pollution. Rivers are often polluted by factory waste that is carelessly

poured into them. When water is heavily polluted, it will not support fish or plants that usually live in it. Besides, polluted river water is unsafe to use for drinking.

Waste material can come in solid form as well. In many countries, a growing problem is how to dispose of the large amounts of refuse created by the country's citizens. A particular problem is caused by plastics, aluminium and other materials which do not break down over time. One way to solve this problem is to re-use these materials, in one way or another.

Finally, in many parts of the world, there are the effects of the noise of modern life. These effects interfere with the psychological health of people in crowded cities and towns.

In some countries laws have been passed to help clean up the dirty air and water and to control the harmful effects of smoke. Several international conferences have dealt with the problem. The world hopes that all countries will combine to control pollution.

Vocabulary

pollution	تلوث
environment	بيئة
surroundings	محيط
sewage	مجارى المياه القذرة
industrial waste	نفايات الصناعة
effects (n.)	تأثيرات
resources	موارد
threatens	تهدد
existence	وجود
planet	كوكب
furnaces	افران
vehicles	مركبات
dispose of	يتخلص من
refuse (n.)	نفايات
plastics	المواد المصنوعة من البلاستيك
aluminium	النيوم
over time	بمضي الوقت

re-use	يعيد استعمال
interfere with	يتعارض مع
psychological	نفسي
crowded	مزدحم
international	دولي
conferences	مؤتمرات
dealt with	عالجت

Re-write the following statements showing whether they are true or false by writing T after true statements and F after false ones. Then correct the false ones.

1. Pollution means making the environment dirty and unclean by human beings.
2. Pollution refers to the harm done to natural surroundings only.
3. Cars, sewage and industrial waste have no effects on our health.
4. Man has only recently started to pollute his environment.
5. The serious problem of pollution has been created by growth in industry and the increase in population.
6. Pollution, according to some scientists, does not threaten the very existence of life on earth.
7. Air pollution is caused by the waste materials poured into the air by cars only.
8. Air pollution is serious, but water pollution is not.
9. Rivers are often polluted by cars and motor vehicles.
10. Polluted river water is safe to use for drinking.
11. One way of solving the problem of the materials that do not break down is by re-using them.
12. The noise of modern life has bad effects on our psychological health.

Written Work and Guided Composition

9.14 Answer these questions. Follow these examples :

- a. Are lions dangerous?
- b. Yes, they are the most dangerous animals.

- a. Is a snake harmless?
- b. No, a snake is one of the most harmful animals.

1. Is a tiger cowardly?
2. Is a cat beautiful?
3. Is a fox stupid?
4. Is a donkey foolish?
5. Are sheep useful?

9.15 Re-write these sentences using one of these words in each space :

after, about, for, to, over

1. Go and ask _____ the manager.
2. You shouldn't worry too much _____ the examination.
3. Please, look _____ the sleeping baby while I am away.
4. Mother will see _____ our supper this evening.
5. Can you go _____ these exercises with me?

9.16 Using the information in each statement, write the question that produces the given answer.

1. Some animals carry diseases: for example, dogs and cats.

What _____?

Dogs, cats and some other animals.

2. A mad dog can give you a disease by biting you.

What _____?

The bite of a mad dog.

3. One day, Sally and her brother Bob went for a walk.

Who _____?

Sally and her brother Bob.

4. Her brother played with three dogs.

Whose _____?

Sally's.

5. One was black, one was white and the other was brown. The black one bit him.

Which _____?

The black one.

6. Two hundred men attended the meeting .

How many ?

Two hundred .

9.17 Re-write these sentences using one of the following words in each blank :

although, because, therefore.

1. Mary didn't have any lunch ——— she didn't want to get fat.
2. The ship began to break; ———, the passengers began to jump into the sea.
3. Harry enjoyed the party very much ——— he had to leave early.
4. Bob has done a lot of sea-diving; ——— he must be a good swimmer.
5. ——— Richard was not trained as a teacher, he will teach this year.

9.18 Look at these pictures.



Now write a composition on the story in the pictures.
Make use of the answers to the following questions :

1. What were Jenny and Susan playing? Where?
2. Where was Bill sitting? What was he doing?
3. What did Jenny suddenly do?
(hit the ball very high by mistake)
4. Where did the ball get caught?

5. What did the girl try to do? Could she do it?
(Join the two answers with but)
6. What did Bill do? (stood up)
7. What did he offer to do?
8. Who helped him to climb the tree?
9. What did Bill do?

9.19 Fill in the blank spaces with words or phrases chosen from the list below :

threatens, harmful, damage, break down,
polluted, heavily, deals with, solve.

1. Some rivers are _____ polluted.
2. Materials that do not _____ have to be re-used in one way or another.
3. We have to _____ this problem.
4. Smoke can be very _____ to health.
5. _____ river water is unhealthy to use for drinking.
6. This passage _____ the problem of pollution.
7. Pollution is a serious danger that _____ the life of people.
8. Pollution can cause _____ to health.

9.20 Kipps : Chapter Nine

Write the number of the sentence and the letter of the correct answer and then write the whole correct sentence in your copybook.

1. Helen _____.
 - a. liked all Kipps's friends, especially Chitterlow
 - b. liked all Kipps's friends except Chitterlow
 - c. did not like Kipps's friends
 - d. did not like Kipps's friends except Chitterlow
2. _____ suggested that Kipps should change his name.
 - a. Helen
 - b. Young Walshingham
 - c. Coote
 - d. Coote's sister
3. Kipps felt _____ because everybody began to teach him.

- a. proud
 - b. bored and unhappy
 - c. confident
 - d. very happy
4. Kipps's new life began to _____.
- a. give him a lot of pleasure
 - b. make him hate his old days at New Romney
 - c. help him forget Ann
 - d. give him a lot of pain
5. Ann was _____ when she met Kipps as he was walking towards his uncle's house.
- a. sad
 - b. angry
 - c. very pleased
 - d. crying
6. Kipps did not tell Ann that he had been left a fortune because she might _____.
- a. tell her brother, Sid
 - b. change her mind towards him
 - c. ask him to lend her some money
 - d. be jealous of him
7. Which statement is true?
- a. Both Kipps and Ann had lost their half-sixpence
 - b. Neither Kipps nor Ann had lost the half-sixpence
 - c. Only Kipps had lost his half-sixpence
 - d. Only Ann had lost her half-sixpence.
8. Although Kipps wanted to stay longer with Ann, he did not do so because _____.
- a. Ann did not want to stay longer
 - b. he thought it would be unwise to do so
 - c. he was busy and wanted to see his uncle
 - d. Ann was still at the gate
9. Kipps did not tell his aunt and uncle about his engagement to Helen because he _____.

- a. did not remember
 - b. did not want to tell them
 - c. thought it would not be wise to tell them
 - d. thought that his aunt and uncle would be angry
10. After his meeting with Ann, Kipps began to _____.
- a. love Helen more and more
 - b. hate Ann more and more
 - c. think about their old days together
 - d. feel proud of his engagement to Helen
11. During their second meeting _____.
- ~~----- a. only Kipps told Ann that he had not forgotten -----~~
- her
 - b. both Kipps and Ann said that they had not forgotten each other
 - c. only Ann told Kipps that she had not forgotten him
 - d. neither Kipps nor Ann said anything
12. Kipps's problem was that he _____.
- a. was engaged to Ann but he loved Helen
 - b. was engaged to Helen but he loved Ann
 - c. began to hate both Ann and Helen
 - d. began to hate Ann and love Helen
13. _____ made Kipps lose confidence in himself.
- a. His aunt and uncle
 - b. The fortune
 - c. Ann
 - d. Helen
14. Kipps was _____.
- a. much happier with Ann than with Helen
 - b. unhappy with both Ann and Helen
 - c. happy with both Ann and Helen
 - d. much happier with Helen than with Ann
15. Kipps was not ready to introduce his aunt and uncle to Helen because _____.
- a. he got up late after a poor night's rest
 - b. he began to hate Helen so that he couldn't face her
 - c. he wanted to catch the next train to London
 - d. Helen was too busy to meet him

UNIT FIVE

DIALOGUE

5.1 MARTIN'S BIRTHDAY

Jenny: Many happy returns
of the day, Martin.

Father: Many happy returns.

Mother: Happy birthday, dear.

Martin: Thank you, all of
you. Has the post
come?

Mother: Yes. The letters and
parcels are on the
table by the front
door.

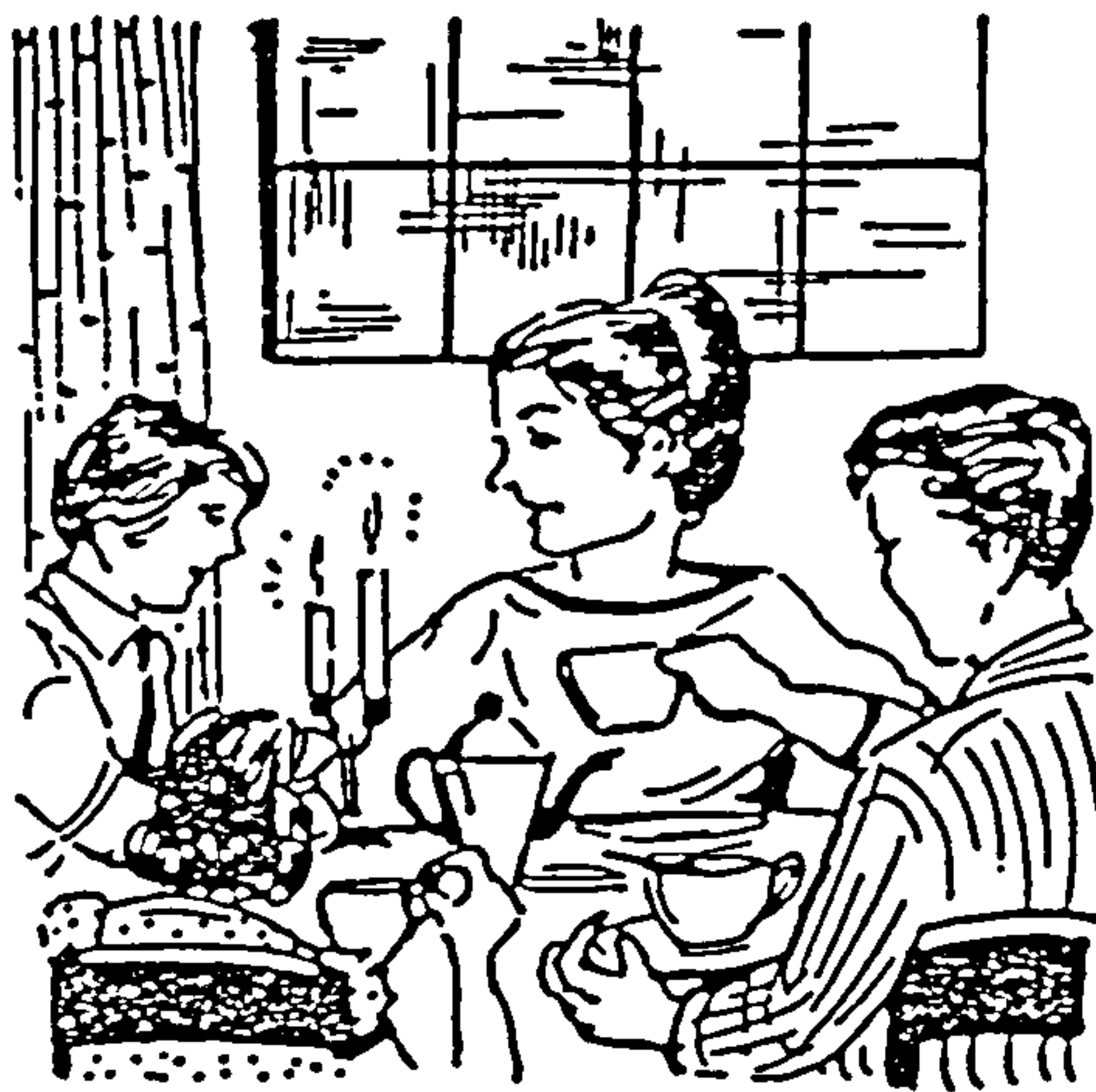
Martin: Are there many?

Mother: Quite a lot. Now, have your breakfast and open the
parcels later.

Jenny: What are you going to do this evening? I suppose you're
going to take us out with all the money you've got for
your birthday.

Martin: Sorry, dear. I'm saving up for the summer holidays.

Father: I've booked seats for the theatre. We'll have dinner first.
Is that all right, Martin?



Martin: Very good, indeed. Thank you very much, Father.

post (n.)	/poust/	بريد
quite a lot	/'kwait ə 'lot/	نوعاً ما كثير
saving up for	/'seivɪŋ ʌp fo:/	يوفر من أجل
book seats	/'buk 'si:ts/	يحجز مقاعد

PRONUNCIATION

5.2 Choose the letter of the word that has a different diphthong sound:

1. a. day b. my c. way d. pay
2. a. go b. old c. now d. so
3. a. my b. eye c. hide d. out
4. a. night b. now c. how d. cow
5. a. noise b. only c. toy d. joy
6. a. near b. dear c. hair d. fear
7. a. where b. there c. pair d. here
8. a. town b. poor c. doer d. sure
9. a. I'm b. my c. may d. die
10. a. they b. plane c. lady d. tie

5.3 Dictation

A dictionary is a reference book which helps to good writing. With the aid of the dictionary you can express yourself more exactly than without it, and can thus make your writing easy to understand. Of course, you should not forget that the dictionary is also one of the most helpful guides to correct spelling. Once you know your dictionary and can use it easily, you will be able to take advantage of it to improve your writing. Keep your dictionary handy and know how to use it, it will serve you well.

ORAL PRACTICE

5.4 Tenses: The Future

A. Structure Notes

The future can be expressed in different ways:

1. The form:

will + base form of the verb

shall + base form of the verb

Examples:

I shall (I'll) finish the work in a minute.

Ali will travel to Paris next week.

This form is used to express future activities or states when time is the important thing.

2. Going + to + base form of the verb:

This form is probably the most common form in conversation. It is used when you have decided to do something, and have made plans to do it.

Examples:

We are going to have a party tomorrow.

He is going to attend the meeting.

3. Present Continuous Tense:

The present continuous tense is used for future events resulting from a present arrangement. Examples:

They're having fish for dinner.

We're inviting several people to a party.

Note : The following adverbs and adverbials are usually used with this tense :

tomorrow, next week , in the future, in a minute, in (ten) days' time

B. Situations



1. The Government will build a new hospital in our village. All the villagers will have good medical care. The engineers are making plans now. Work will start next month. The hospital will be ready at the beginning of next year.



2. It's Jenny's birthday. Jenny is going to give a party this evening. Her mother and her brother, Martin, are helping her. A lot of people are going to come. The party is going to start at 7.30, so the first guests are going to arrive at any minute. «When are you going to take off that apron?». The mother is asking Jenny. «In a minute» is Jenny's answer.



3. Arthur Collins is flying to Paris tomorrow. He's going to

discuss some new contracts with a French company. He's not taking a lot of clothes with him. He's only staying two days in Paris. His wife is not coming with him. The manager of the French company is meeting Arthur at the airport.

C. Drills

1. (1) This tea is horrible.
I'll make you another cup.
(2) My typewriter's broken.
I'll mend it for you.
(3) We don't have any chalk.
I'll bring some.
(4) These books are too heavy for me.
I'll carry them for you.
(5) I need some coloured paper.
I'll buy you some.
(6) My windows are dirty.
I'll clean them for you.
2. (a) money: give/Ali?
What shall I do with this money? Shall I give it to Ali?
(b) bicycle: put/garage?
What shall I do with this bicycle?
Shall I put it in the garage?

Now make similar questions using the following:

1. postcard: send/Ali?
2. books: put/shelf?
3. car: sell/Hadi?
4. meat: cook/oven?
5. broken glass: throw/dustbin?

6. fish: give/cat?

3. (a) attend the annual meeting

- Are you going to attend the annual meeting?
- Yes, why don't you attend it,too?.

(b) grow vegetables

- Are you going to grow vegetables?
- Yes, why don't you grow vegetables,too?

Now practise in the same way using the following:

1. paint your house
2. give up smoking
3. pay the bills
4. spend the weekend in the countryside
5. join the Popular Army
6. buy a dictionary
7. take the day off

4. (a) - What are your plans for tonight?

- I'm going to write some letters.
- Why not go to the pictures instead?
- Oh, I don't have the time for that.

(b) - What are your plans for tomorrow?

- I'm going to write some letters.
- Why not watch television instead?
- Oh, I don't have the time for that.

Now practise with:

read a book	play tennis
attend the annual	
meeting	go to the theatre
study arithmetic	go swimming
work overtime	play football

work in the garden go out
pay some bills play chess

5. – Are you busy tomorrow?
– Yes, I am.
– What are you doing?
– I'm painting the house.

Now practise by using the following phrases instead of the words printed in bold type:

1. typing a report
2. expecting visitors
3. doing my homework
4. giving a party
5. having a meeting with the pupils

5.5 Intention

A. Structure Notes

You can express intention in one of the following ways:

1. by the use of the verbs:
want/intend/mean/aim / plan + infinitive

Examples: I want to post these letters.
They aim to improve the work.

2. by the use of this construction:
am/is/are + going + infinitive

Examples: I'm going to see the manager tomorrow.
She's going to post these letters.

B. Situation

Jack Newton is a librarian. He receives a very low salary. Today he wants to talk to his boss about it. He intends to ask for a rise. If the manager refuses, Jack is going to give up his job and look for another one.



C. Drills

1. (a) – Does Ali intend to stay here?
 – Yes, he's certainly going to stay here.
- (b) – Does Samir aim to improve the design?
 – Yes, he's certainly going to improve it.

Now give similar responses to:

1. Does Ahmed plan to resign?
2. Does he want to apply for another job?
3. Does Firas intend to help Haitham?
4. Does Jack mean to ask for a rise?
5. Does Arthur intend to discuss the problem?
6. Does Martin want to buy a new bike?

resign /ri'zain/

يستقيل

2. – Aren't you going to play chess?
 – No, I'm not.
 – What are you going to do?

– I'm going to do my homework.

Now practise with:

ask for a rise resign

stay here leave for home

play tennis read a book

WRITTEN WORK

5.6 Re-write the dialogue using commas where necessary.

– Good morning Mr. Smith.

– Good morning Mrs. Green.

– Have you got any new books?

– Yes I have. There are also newspapers magazines and a new dictionary. This book is nice new and exciting.

– Can I look at it Mr. Smith?

– Certainly Mrs. Green. You can look at it read the introduction take it away for a day or two and bring it back.

5.7 In your copybook do drills (3), (4), and (5) of 5.4 (Oral Practice).

5.8 In your copybook do drills (1) and (2) of 5.5 (Oral Practice).

5.9 You want to go on a picnic tomorrow. Write a paragraph describing what you are going to do:

(a) Where you are going to go, with whom

(b) How

(c) What things you are going to take

(d) Where you are going to stay

(e) What you are going to do there

(f) What problems (if any) you are going to face

(g) When you will be back

LITERARY READER

5.10 Re – arrange the following statements according to the

order of events in the text:

- a. Fagin stopped Oliver from running away and hit him with a heavy stick.
- b. Fagin and Bill persuaded Nancy to go to the police – station.
- c. Mr. Brownlow sent Oliver to the book – seller.
- d. Nancy said she was sorry that she had brought Oliver back to Fagin.
- e. The Dodger and Bates returned to Fagin.
- f. Bill stopped Nancy from attacking the Jew.
- g. Oliver was caught by the police.
- h. The Jew decided to shut up his house and move to another place.
- i. Nancy caught Oliver in the street, pretending to be his sister.
- j. Nancy snatched the stick from the Jew's hand and threw it into the fire.
- k. Oliver jumped towards the door, trying to run away.
- l. Nancy learned that Oliver was in Mr. Brownlow's house.

UNIT SEVEN

7.1 Reading Comprehension

The Domestic Budget

One Saturday morning Arthur found several letters on his doormat . All but one were in buff coloured envelopes . This meant only one thing—bills ! Arthur sat down to breakfast with rather a long face as he opened them one after the other .

The first was electricity bill—over twenty pounds . Mary had been making many long distance phone calls to her parents in Middle Ford . If she had not made these calls the bill would have been much smaller . The third was from the local corner shop where Mary had been running a bill for groceries . Luckily there was no gas bill as there was a coin meter for gas in the flat .

The fact was that Arthur had only enough money left in his bank account for two of the bills and Mary had already spent half her week's wages on Friday night . There had been a sale at one of the department stores and Mary had bought herself a new winter coat and had got three shirts and a pullover — at bargain prices — for Arthur .

Arthur's bank manager has certain views about the financial responsibilities of young married couples . This is the kind of thing he might say :

One of the things that young people do not often realize is the cost of living when you are running your own household . When a young couple have been married a few months they soon begin to understand the responsibilities they have taken up on themselves . A large proportion of a married couple's income goes on rent, rates, heating and lighting . It

is important for young people to remember that it is impossible to continue with the carefree spending habits they acquired when they were single and could spend their wages as they liked . Perhaps in many cases they would have been helped if guidance on the problems of domestic budgeting had been given in their schools . Budgeting means working out what your commitments are every week or every month and allocating sums of money for each item of expenditure putting that money aside for all the bills before they come . If possible it is a good idea to put some money aside for emergencies .

Many couples take out a life assurance policy, which is a form of saving . Another way to save money is to put it into a building society . This is a good thing if you are saving to buy a house .

VOCABULARY :

budget / bʌ dʒ it /	ميزانية
bull / bʌ l /	اصفر ، برتقالي
pull - over / pul - ɔv ə /	بلوفر صوفي
financial / faɪ n ɔ n s i /	مالي
rates / reɪ t s /	رسم ضريبة
carefree / keə fri : /	خالي البال
single / si ŋ gl /	اعزب
commitment / k ə mɪ t m ə nt /	تعهد او التزام
allocate / ə l ɔ keɪ t /	يوزع، يخصص
expenditure / ɪ k s p ɛ n dɪ t ʃ ə /	اتفاق
emergencies / ɪ m ə ʤ ɪ n sɪ z /	طوارئ

7.2 Comprehension Questions :

- a. How did Arthur know that most of the letters were bills ?
- b. Why was Arthur's telephone bill very large ?
- c. What would have happened if Arthur had not paid the final demand for his telephone bill ?
- d. What would have happened if Mary had made more phone calls to her parents ?
- e. Do Arthur and Mary have the same ideas about saving money ? If not what is the difference ?
- f. What is the difference between the way you can spend money when you are single and when you are married and running your own household ?
- g. How could young couples be helped to understand their domestic financial responsibilities ?

7.3 Re -write the following statements correctly

1. Arthur felt very glad as he sat down to breakfast .
2. One of the letters was in a buff coloured envelope .
3. Arthur did not receive a gas bill because they did not use gas in their flat .
4. Arthur had a lot of money in the bank .
5. A large proportion of a married couple's income goes on food and clothes .
6. Budgeting means saving money for the future .

7.4 Fill in the blanks with suitable words chosen from the list below :

sale, emergencies, final, allocation, local,
domestic, proportion, doormat

1. Arthur received several requests for payment and this was the _____ one before his telephone was cut off .
2. She has booked her bed in the ward of

- the _____ hospital .
3. Quite a large _____ of their income goes on rent .
 4. Mary has been shopping at the _____
 5. Wipe off your shoes on the _____ before you enter the house .
 6. Did your teaching career make any difference to your _____ routine .
 7. An organization was formed to cope with _____ arising out of air raids .
 8. Mother has made an _____ of tasks with the house work .

7.5 Fill in the blanks with the appropriate prepositions from the list below .

for, in, with, at, into, on

1. Don't spend hours talking _____ the phone .
2. He has got a reasonable increase _____ his wages .
3. You can obtain a supply of gas by inserting a coin _____ a meter
4. He never paid the full price _____ anything .
5. He was very good _____ finding bargains .
6. Never touch an electric iron _____ wet hands .



7.6 Dialogue

Receptionist: Good morning, sir. Can I help you?

Andy: Oh, yes. I'm new here, I'm just starting, as a matter of fact. I was told to report to Mr. Gray.

Receptionist: Oh, yes, you're Mr. Hall, Andy Hall, aren't

you? Mr. Gray's office is one floor up. It's room 305. Would you like me to take you up or do you think you can find your own way?

Andy: I think I can manage, thanks. Do I go up those stairs over there?

Receptionist: Yes, that's right. Just go up one flight and then turn left. It's about the seventh door on the right.

Andy: Thanks. You've been most helpful, madam.

Receptionist: That's all right. Don't forget. One flight up, turn left. The seventh door on the right.

Andy: Thanks. I think I'll find my way.

report to /ri'pɔ:t tu/
 one floor up /'wʌn 'flo:ɹ 'ʌp/
 flight /flaɪt/

احضر لمواجهة
 مطابق واحد
 الى الاعلى
 مطابق

7.7 Pronunciation Notes

1. Words with /a/

matter /'matə/
 fact /fakt/
 manage /'manɪdʒ/
 thanks /θaŋks/
 madam /mədəm/

Words with /a: /

starting /'sta:tɪŋ/
 aren't /a:nt/
 heart /ha:t/
 clerk /kla:k /
 arm /a:m /

2. Words with /ou/

oh /ou/
 told /tould/
 own /oun/
 go /gou/

over /'ouvə/
 most /moust/
 don't /dount/
 those /ðouz/

3. Words with /f/

fact /fakt/
 office /'ofɪs/
 floor /flo:/
 flight /flaɪt/
 helpful /'helpfʊl/
 left /left/

Words with /V/

5 (five) /faɪv/
 over /'ouvə/
 seventh /sevənθ/
 you've /ju:v/

4. Words with /ð/

those /ðouz/

there /ðeə/

that's /ðats/

then /ðen/

Words with /θ/

think /θɪŋk/

thanks /θaŋks/

thing /θɪŋ/

thought / θo:t/



Practice Exercises

Location

7.8

1. The old man is sitting at the bank. He's fishing. He has thrown his rod into the water and now he's waiting. There is a big bucket beside him.
2. There are three children behind the old man. They're watching him.
3. There is a bridge across the river.
4. A boy is jumping into the water. Several other boys are swimming in the river.
5. We can see several houses beyond the bridge.
6. We can also see a factory in the distance.
7. There are plenty of trees along the other bank of the river.
8. A boy is swimming towards the old man.
9. Other boys are swimming away from the old man.
10. Some children are swimming under the bridge.

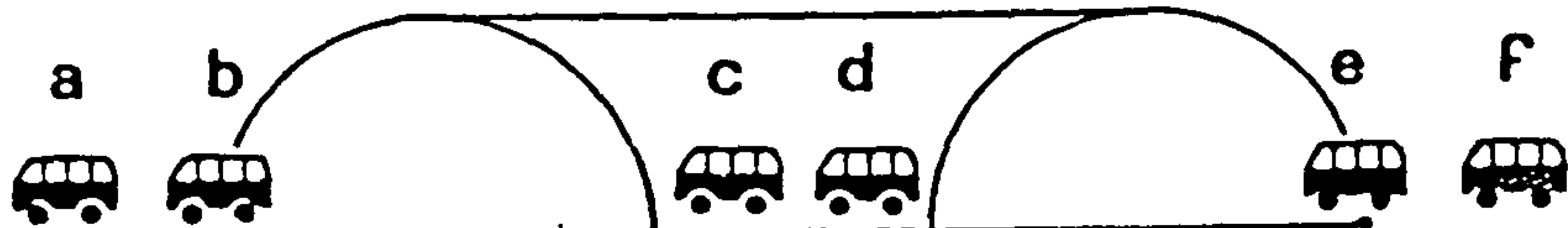
7.9 Describe the direction of movement of the cars in relation to a one-way tunnel.

Begin your sentences like this:

Car A is moving.....

Make use of the following expressions:

through, away from, towards, along, out of, into.



7.10



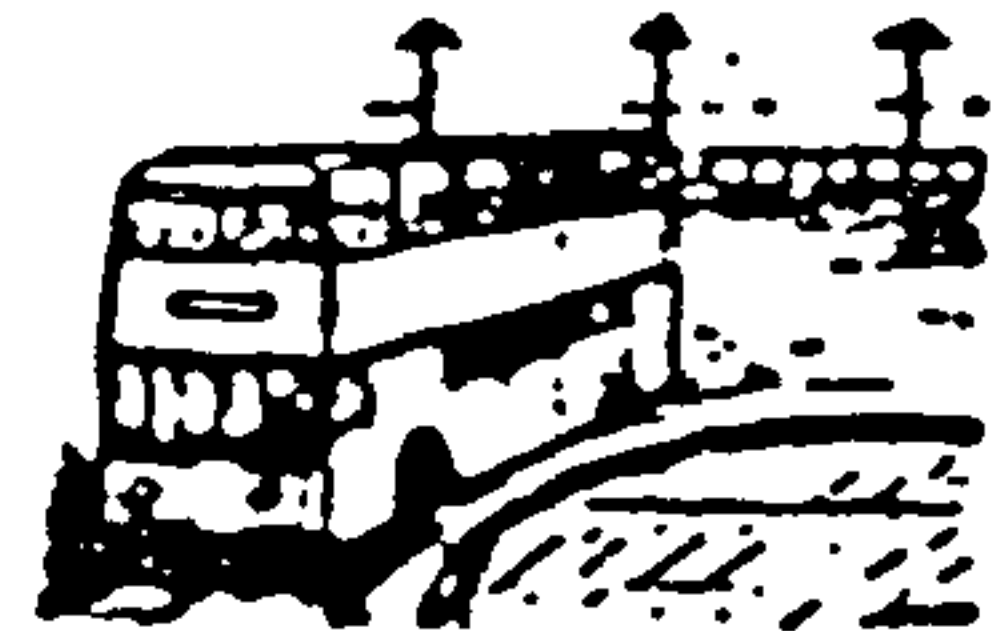
1. Where is the house?



2. Where's the house?

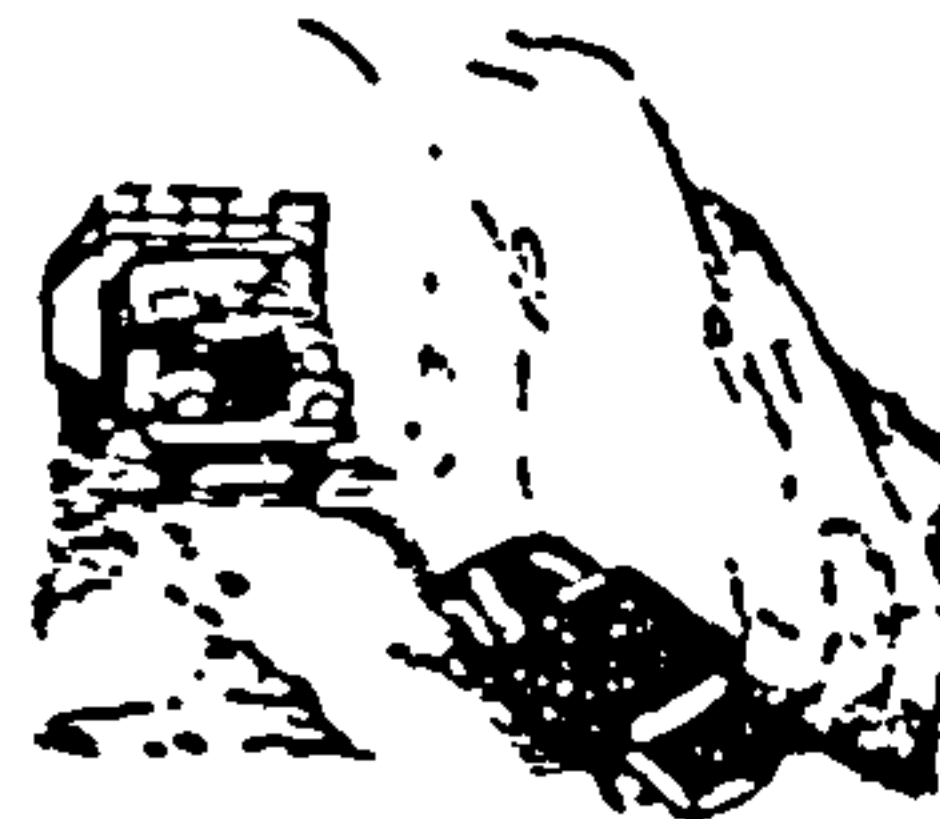


3. Where's the soldier crawling?
(barbed wires).



4. Where's the bus turning?

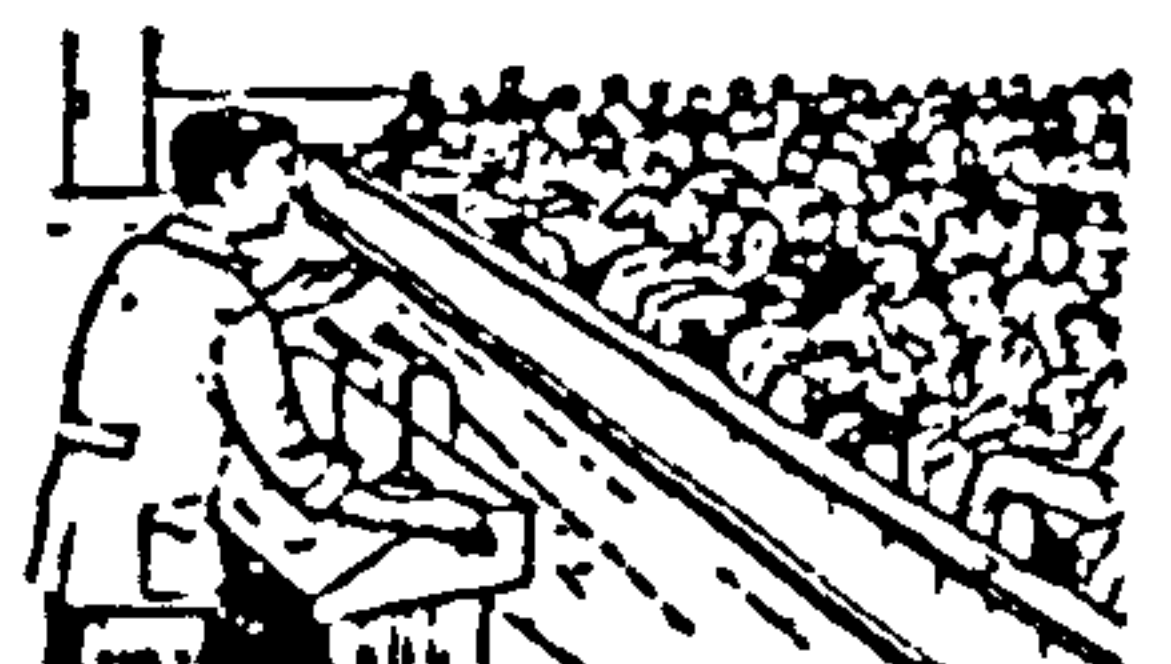
5. Where is the car going?
Where is the lorry going?



6. Where is the car?
Where is the lorry?
Where is the river?
Where are the two vehicles going?



7. Where is the speaker standing?
Make use of the following:
round, underneath, up the hill, below,
along, across, between, down the hill.



before, behind, among, in front of, on the stage.

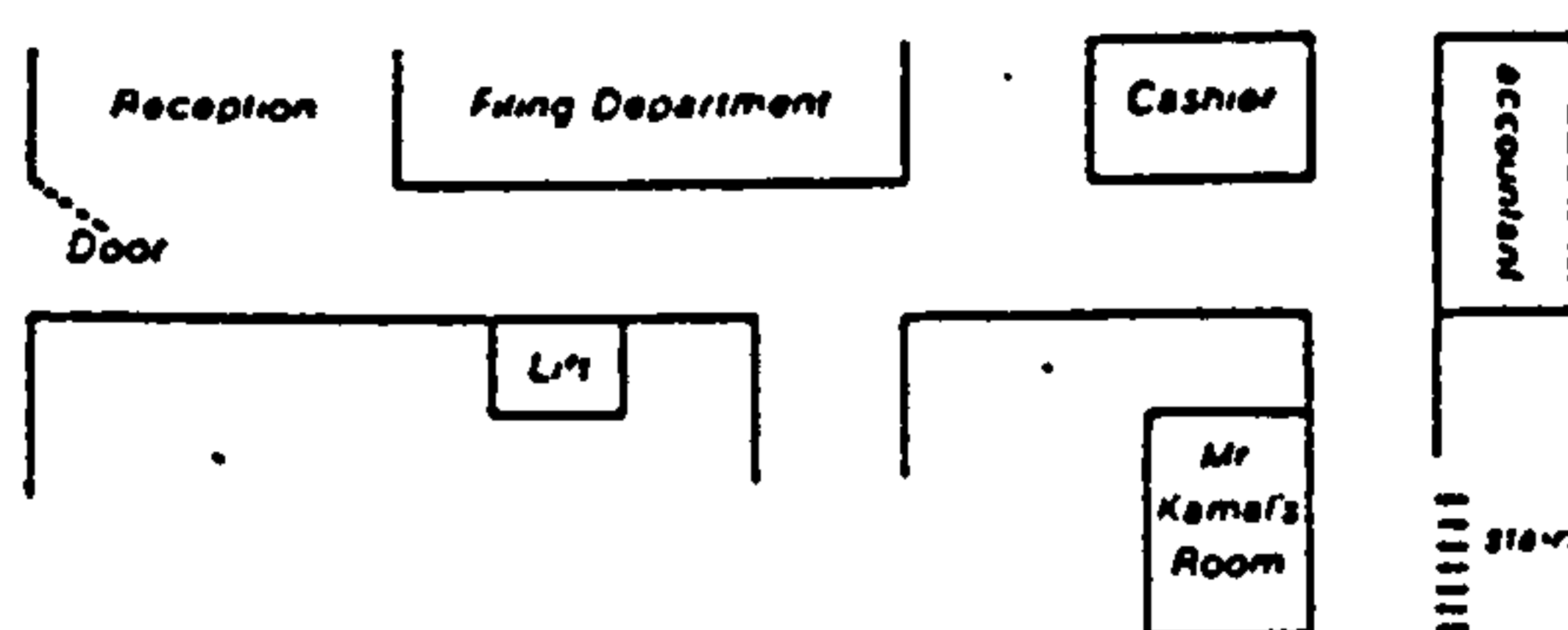
7.11 In an office

- 1 - Excuse me. where can I find the cashier?
 - Go down the corridor and turn left.
 - Thank you very much.
2. - Excuse me. where can I find the export department?
 - It's on the fourth floor. The lift is over there.

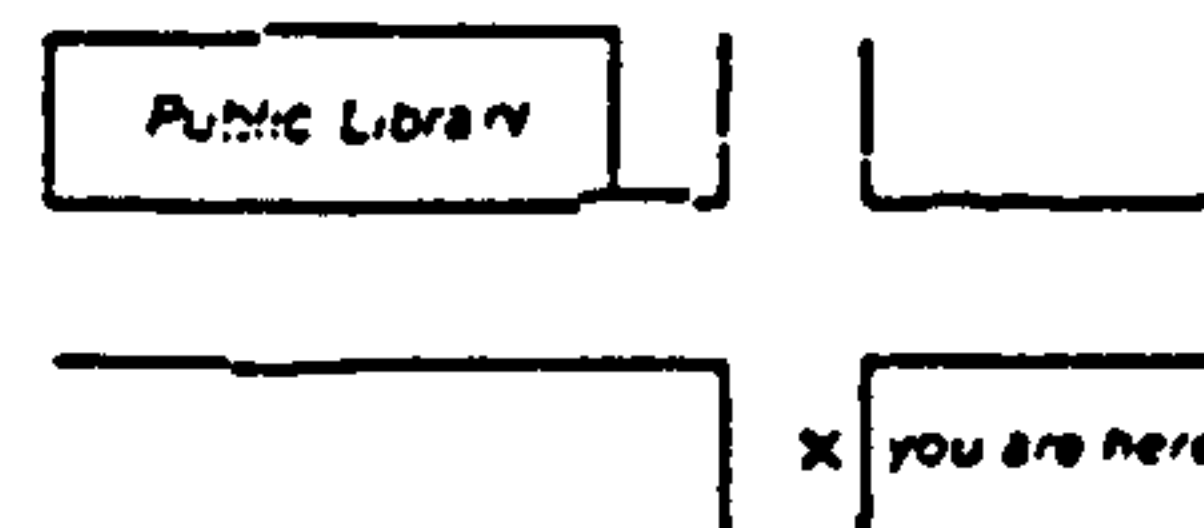
Thank you very much.

You are the receptionist at this office. Show the way to:

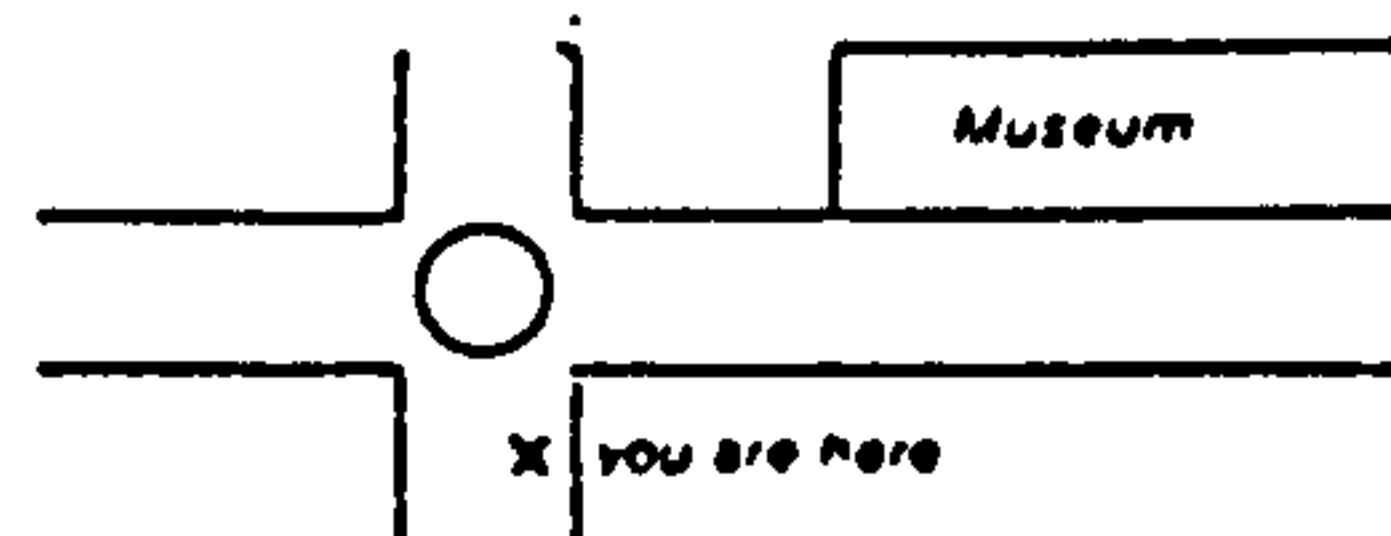
the filing department
 Mr. Kamal's room
 the accountant
 the stairs
 the sales department
 (third floor)



- 7.12 1. Excuse me. Can you tell me the way to the Public Library?
 - Yes, certainly. Go along here till you get to the crossroads.
 - I go along here till I get to the crossroads.
 - That's right. Then you turn left. The Public Library is on the right.
 - Thank you very much.



2. - Excuse me. Can you show me the way to the Museum?
 - Oh, let me see. Go along here to the roundabout.
 - I go along here to the roundabout.
 - That's right. Then turn right and keep on till you come to the Museum. It's a large building. You can't miss it.
 - Thank you very much.



3. - Excuse me, where can I find a post office near here?
 - Take the second turning on the right and the post office is on the left.
 - Thank you very much.



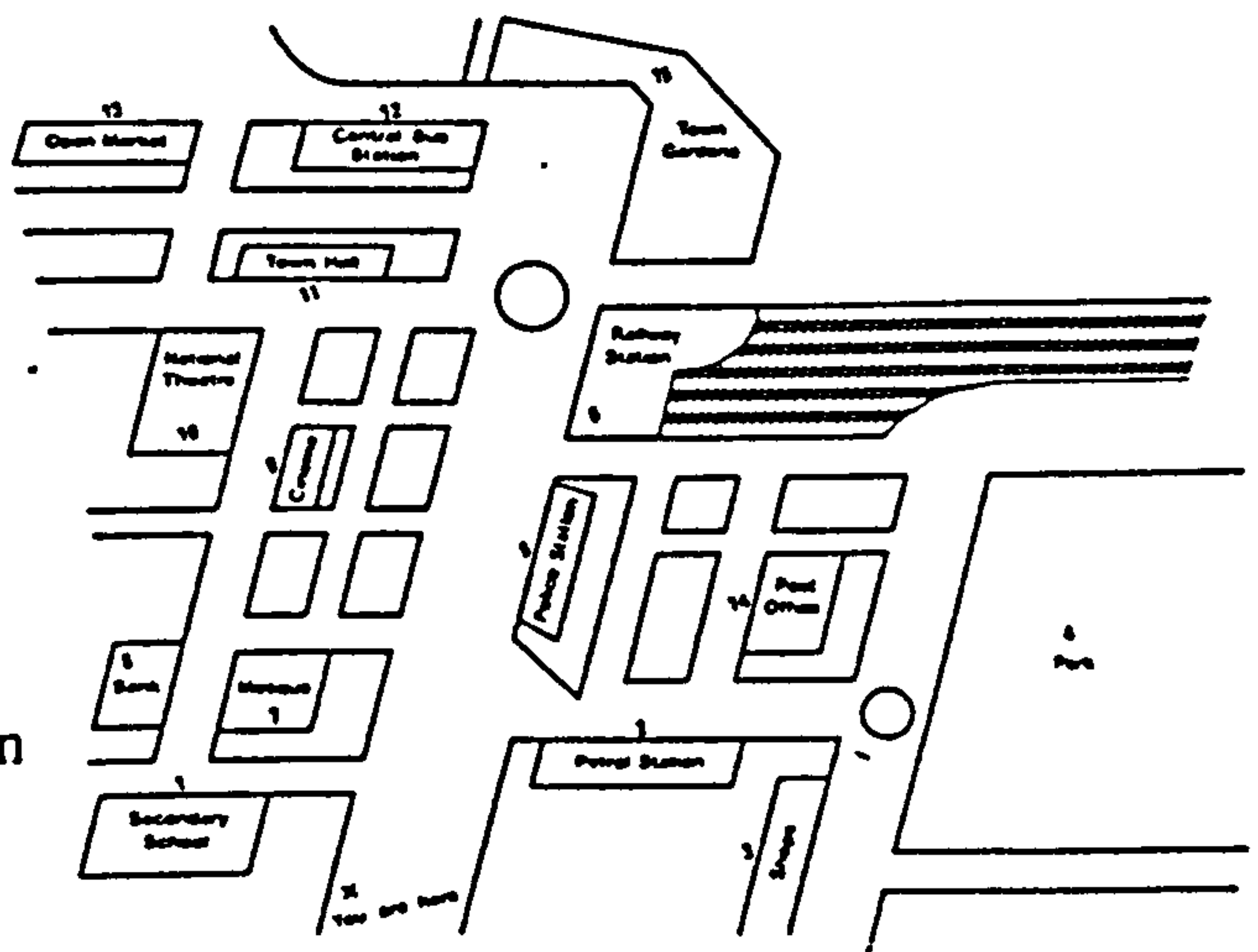
crossroads /'krosroudz/
 roundabout /'raundə'baʊt/

تقاطع الطرق
 استدارة (فلكة)

7.13 Examine the following:

Now describe the way to the following:

1. the secondary school
2. the petrol station
3. the shops
4. the park
5. the police station
6. the railway station
7. the mosque
8. the bank
9. the cinema
10. the National Theatre
11. the Town Hall
12. the central bus station
13. the open market
14. the post office
15. the town gardens



Literary Reader

7.14 Choose the most appropriate answer:

1. When Shylock met Solanio and Salerio he _____.
 a. was still sad and angry about his money
 b. knew about Antonio's second ship

- c. asked them about Bassanio
 - d. did not speak with them
2. Shylock was ready to _____.
- a. forgive Antonio
 - b. take his pound of Antonio's flesh
 - c. help Antonio
 - d. take his pound of flesh if Antonio continued to call him a dog
3. Shylock was ready to see his daughter dead because she _____.
- a. escaped with Lorenzo
 - b. stole the money
 - c. stole the money and the diamonds
 - d. did not marry the person Shylock chose
4. It was _____ who told Shylock about Antonio's second ship.
- a. Solanio
 - b. Salerio
 - c. Launcelot
 - d. Tubal
5. Shylock wanted a sheriff's officer to be available _____ before Antonio's debt was to be paid.
- a. 3 weeks
 - b. 2 weeks
 - c. a week
 - d. 3 months
- 7.15 Match the beginnings in List A with the appropriate endings from List B. Write the correct answers in your exercise book.

List A

- 1 Solanio and Salerio
- 2 Jessica's father
- 3 The loss of Antonio's ships
- 4 According to Shylock, the bond
- 5 Shylock's cousin

List B

- a. pleased Shylock, the money-lender.
- b. played with the Jew's feelings.

- c. reminded her of her mother's ring.
- d. told him where Jessica was.
- e. survived the wreck.
- f. mocked at Shylock.
- g. refused to revenge himself on Antonio.
- h. was nothing but a bait.
- i. asked Tubal if he knew where she was.

7.16 Choose the most appropriate alternative:

1. When Bassanio arrived in Belmont, Portia was_____.
 - a. afraid that he would choose the right box
 - b. afraid that he would choose the wrong box
 - c. sure that he would choose the right box
 - d. sure that he would choose the wrong casket
2. Portia asked Bassanio to_____.
 - a. choose the casket at once
 - b. stay for a couple of days and then try the lottery
 - c. choose the gold casket
 - d. stay for 6 days and then try the lottery
3. Portia was_____in expressing her love.
 - a. too forward
 - b. forward
 - c. reserved
 - d. too reserved
4. Bassanio looked at the three caskets and_____.
 - a. did not read the inscriptions
 - b. read the inscriptions
 - c. then opened the gold casket
 - d. read the inscription on the lead casket
5. Inside the lead casket Bassanio_____.
 - a. found a scroll only
 - b. found a scroll and a picture
 - c. did not find anything
 - d. found a picture

7.17 Write a paragraph on "Bassanio's Choice". Make use of the following questions :

How did Portia receive Bassanio at Belmont ? Why did

she beg him to delay his choice ? Did she help him in his choice ? Did she help him in his choice ? Why ? What did he think in the beginning ? Why did he reject that idea ? What did he choose at last ? why ? What did he find there ? What did Portia give him ? What did he promise her ? What did Gratiano and Nerissa ask Bassanio and Portia for ?

GLASGOW
UNIVERSITY
LIBRARY