

**A Comparison of Tense, Aspect and Voice systems of English, Modern  
Standard Arabic and Libyan Dialects and the Possible  
Implications for the Learning and using of English Tense, Aspect  
and Voice by Libyan University Students**

Ahmed Altahr. Alesawe

Submitted in Accordance with the Requirements for the Degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy

The University of Leeds

School of Education



March 2015

The candidate confirms that the work submitted is his own and that appropriate that credit has been given where reference has been made to the work of others

This copy has been supplied on the understanding that it is copyright material and that no quotation from the thesis may be published without proper acknowledgement

## **Acknowledgement**

I acknowledge and appreciate the invaluable comments and supervision provided by Professor Mike Baynham and Doctor Mustapha Lahlali. Without their support and encouragement comments I would not have been able to finish this study.

I would also like to express my appreciation and thanks to Dr. Sameh Hanna Soliman for his time and supportive comments.

A big thank you goes to the participants of this study and the teachers at the Faculty of Teachers in Zintan city for their help in conducting the fieldwork at that faculty. I would not have been able to obtain the necessary data for the study without their cooperation.

I send my thanks to those who offered their help such as Mr Khalid Al-Azhari and Mohamed Abdusalam who helped me looking for references on the Libyan dialects. I also appreciate the support and help of Dr. Khalid Alzoobair.

I would also like to express my appreciation and thanks to the supervisors and employs at the Cultural Attaché at Libyan embassy in London, in particular Mr. Mohamed Almokhtar and Mr. Yousif Jamal.

## **Abstract**

This study investigates the existence and use of Tense Aspect and Voice (TAV) in Modern standard Arabic (MSA) and Libyan Dialects (LD) and the effect of these language systems, particularly ‘Libyan dialects (LD)’ on the acquisition and use of the English (TAV) by Libyan university students. This study is conducted in two stages. The first stage investigates the existence and use of (TAV) in both MSA and LD, and then it compares these grammatical structures in MSA to those of LD in terms of syntactic structures and the pragmatic use of TAV.

The second stage investigates the use of the English (TAV) by Libyan learners of English. The findings of these two stages are compared and contrasted to see the extent to which the presence of (TAV) in Libyan dialects affects the use of English (TAV) by Libyan learners of English and, if there is any influence, which of these two language forms (MSA) or (LD) has more effect on the English use of (TAV).

The results of the first stage show some similarities and differences between (MSA) and (LD) in the presence and use of (TAV). That is, some tenses exist in both (MSA) and (LD) and are similarly used, while other tenses are either existent in MSA or LD.

The results of the second stage show that both language forms (LD) and (MSA) have a degree of influence on the acquisition and use of English (TAV). However, (LD) appears to have more effect. This is very clear in the use of simple past instead of present perfect and in the use of what is so called ‘activation’ which is deemed an (LD) marked form as this appears in the participants’ responses when using the English (TAV).

Besides this, some other grammatical structures such as the use of continuous and perfect tenses are also affected by (LD).

## Table of Contents

Acknowledgements	i
Abstract	ii
Table of Contents	iii
List of Tables and Diagrams	viii
The Main Abbreviations Used in the Study	x
The Transliteration System Symbols	xi
<b>Chapter One Introduction</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1. Historical Background of Libya	5
1.2. The Libyan Tertiary Education System	7
1.3. Rationale of the study	9
1.4. The Aim of the Study	10
1.5. Contribution of the Study	11
<b>Chapter Two Literature Review</b>	<b>12</b>
2.1. Behaviourist Theory	13
2.1.1. Behaviourist View of L1 Influence	14
2.2. Mentalist Theory	15
2.2.1. Mentalist View of L1 Influence	17
2.3. Cognitive Theory	21
2.4. Connectionism	23
2.5. Competition Model	25
2.5.1. The Competition Model View of L1 Influence	26
2.6. Information Processing Model	27
2.6.1. L1 Influence in the Information Processing Model	29

2.7. MOGUL Model	29
2.7.1. MOGUL View of L1 Influence	30
2.8. The Phenomenon of L1 Influence on Learner Language	34
2.9. Types and Dimensions of L1 Influence	35
2.9.1. Borrowing	36
2.9.2. Avoidance	37
2.10. Conceptual Transfer	40
2.11. Transfer Load and Constraints	41
2.12. Summary and Conclusion	44
<b>Chapter Three Research Methods</b>	<b>47</b>
3.0. Introduction	47
3.1. The Subjects and Context of the Study	49
3.2. Ethical Considerations	50
3.3. Research Instruments	51
3.4. Data Collection Instruments	52
3.4.1. Stage (I) Libyan Dialects	52
3.4.1.1. Focus Group	53
3.4.1.2. Conversation Recordings	54
3.4.2. Stage Two Libyan University Students	56
3.4.2.1 Picture Describing	57
3.4.2.2 Story Writing	57
3.5. Data Analysis	58
3.6. The Pilot Study	59
3.6.1. The Participants of the Pilot Study	59
3.6.2. Summary of the Pilot Study Findings	59
3.7. Transliteration System	60

<b>Chapter Four English Tense, Aspect and Voice.....</b>	<b>62</b>
4.1. The English Tenses .....	62
4. 2. Aspect .....	65
4.1. 3. Voice .....	69
4.4. Conclusion .....	72
<b>Chapter Five The Arabic Tense, Aspect and Voice .....</b>	<b>74</b>
5.1. The Arabic verb .....	75
5.1.1 Transitivity .....	76
5.1.2 Verb Forms .....	78
5.1.2.1 Triliteral Verbs .....	79
5.1.2.2 Quadriliteral Verbs .....	80
5. 2. Tense .....	82
5.2.1 The past .....	83
5.2.2. The present .....	85
5.2.3 Imperative .....	88
5.2.4 The future .....	91
5.3. Aspect .....	93
5.4. Voice .....	99
5.4.1 Arabic Passive Verb Formation .....	102
5.4.1.1 Inflectional Passive .....	102
5.4.1.2 Derivational Passive .....	105
5.5 Summary .....	107
<b>Chapter Six TAV in Libyan Dialects.....</b>	<b>111</b>
6.1. Tense .....	114

6.1.1 The Past (Perfect)	115
6.1.2. The Present (Imperfect)	119
6.1.3. The Future	124
6.2. Aspect	127
6.3. The Voice	139
6.4. Conclusion	145

### **Chapter Seven: Comparison and Contrast of LD,**

<b>MSA and English TAV Structures</b>	<b>149</b>
7.1. Tense	150
7.1.1. The Past	151
7.1.2. The Present	154
7.1.3. The Future	157
7.2. Aspect	159
7.2.1. Progressive	159
7.2.1.1. Perfect Continuous	160
7.2.1.2. Simple Continuous	163
7.2.2. The Perfect	165
7.3. The Voice	167
7.4. Conclusion	172

### **Chapter Eight The Analysis of Stage Two**

8.0. TAV Used by Libyan University Students	179
8.1. Data Analysis	182
8.1.1. The Analysis of Tense and Aspect	182
8.1. 2. The Analysis of Voice	202



8.2. Conclusion	211
<b>Chapter Nine Comparison and Contrast of the Two Stages</b>	<b>217</b>
9.1. Comparison and Contrast of the Stage One and Stage Two Findings	217
9.2. Discussion	227
<b>Chapter Ten Conclusions and Recommendations</b>	<b>240</b>
10.1. Conclusions	240
10.1.1. The Mentalist View of L1 influence	248
10.1.2. Connectionism View of L1 Influence	250
10.1.3. Conceptual Transfer	253
10.2. Recommendations	253
10. 3. Suggestions for Further Studies	255
Reference	257
Appendixes	269

## List of Tables and diagrams

Table (1) Comparing and Contrasting the Tenses Used in the Conversation Recording to Their Equivalents in both Modern Standard Arabic an English Languages.....	56
Table (2a) Triliteral Verb Forms .....	79
Table (2b) Quadriliteral Verb Forms .....	80
Table (3a) the Formation of the Imperative According to Verb Forms .....	89
Table (3b) the Formation of the Imperative According to Verb Type .....	90
Table (4a ) The Passive of the Triliteral Verb .....	103
Table ( 4b ) The passive of Quadriliteral Verbs .....	103
Table (4c) the Passive of the non-strong Verb Types .....	104
Table (5) Comparing and Contrasting the Tenses Used in the Conversation recording to their Equivalents in both Modern Standard Arabic and English Languages.....	114
Table (6) the Use of (كُنْ kan) in Different Arabic Dialects .....	138
Table (7a) Triliteral Verbs in LD .....	140
Table (7b) Quadriliteral Verbs in LD .....	140
Table (8a) Comparison of Tense and Aspect in MSA and LD .....	173
Table (8b) comparison of voice in MSA and LD .....	174
Diagram (1) TAV Comparison in English, MSA and LD .....	176
Table (9) Sample of Comparison Table of TAV Used by the Participants .....	183

Table (10a) Frequency of Tense and Aspect Used	
by the Participants	..... 185
Table (10b) the Correct Use of Tense and Aspect Used	
by the Participants	..... 188
Table (10c) Frequency of Voice Used by the Participants	..... 204
Table (10d) the Correct Use of Voice Used by the Participants	..... 206
Table (11) Comparison of the TAV in MSA, LD and PR	..... 219

### The main Abbreviations Used in the Study

1 L (2L, 3L ...)	.....	First (second, third) Year - Low Student
(1)M	.....	Middle Student
(1)H	.....	High Student
MS	.....	Middle Structure
PR	.....	Participants' response
L1	.....	First Language
L2	.....	Second / foreign Language
LD	.....	Libyan Dialects
LT	.....	Literal Translation
MSA	.....	Modern Standard Arabic
TAV	.....	Tense, Aspect and Voice
ZD	.....	Zintan Dialect

### The Transliteration System Symbols

Arabic sound	symbol	Arabic sound	symbol	Arabic sound	symbol
ا	a	ر	r	ف	f
ب	b	ز	z	ق	q */g/
ت	t	س	s	ك	k
ث	th	ش	sh	ل	l
ج	j	ص	ṣ	م	m
ح	ḥ	ض	ḍ	ن	n
خ	kh	ط	ṭ	هـ	h
د	d	ع	‘	و	w
ذ	dh	غ	gh	ي	y

\* /g/ represents the dialectical pronunciation of the sound /ق/.

The sign /-/ represents the hamza

## **Chapter One**

### **Introduction**

The extent to which L1 affects the acquisition and use of L2 grammatical forms is one of the major topics in the field of second language acquisition. Different theories have emerged to explain this phenomenon, the first of them being the well-known controversy between behaviourist theory and the subsequent mentalist theory. The former, to which the phenomenon of transfer was initially believed to be related, views the L1 as an obstacle to language learning especially when its linguistic features are different from those of the L2. The latter (at least in some of its strong versions) rules out the effect of the L1 and claims that the L1 is not a factor in the acquisition process but the properties of language are inborn (Demirezen 1989). Other studies have fluctuated in accepting or rejecting L1 influence. For example, Clahsen and Muysken (1989) studied Turkish learners of German and noticed that although the Turkish and the German languages are similar in their verb order, these learners did not produce the correct verb order; so, they ruled out the effect of L1. Yig (1999) claims that L1 influence is evident in the early stages and among less proficient learners only.

Despite its origins in behaviourism, the notion of L1 transfer has not been excluded from subsequent SLA research from whatever perspective, although some researchers have questioned its significance and argue that it has relatively little effect. Perhaps this conclusion in its strongest form comes from Dulay and et al (1982) who studied learners' errors and noticed that only 5 % of errors were the result of interference.

The question that could be raised here is, 'Which L1 variety did Dulay and Burt refer to in their study?'

In Libya, for example, there are dialects, such as the one used in Tripoli region, that use grammatical structures different from those of Modern Standard Arabic. It is therefore presumed in the design of this study that the parameters of the language variety that are transferred when learning a second language are not necessarily the parameters of the standard language especially when the standard language and its varieties are distinct. This is because the non standard variety, as is the case with Arabic, is naturally, used more than the standard language and, therefore, it may have a direct effect on learning a second language.

In addition, most of the methods applied for researching L1 influence on L2 have used grammaticality judgment techniques (White 1987: vol.9, Zdorenko and Paradis 2008 Vol. 24, and Sokolik and Smith 1992: Vol:8), which are insufficient for detecting all types of L1 influence such as conceptual transfer where learners use a particular grammatical structure instead of another. That is, grammaticality judgment usually tests how much a learner knows about the grammar of the target language. In other words, this technique could be effective for revealing learners' ability to choose the correct grammatical structure or correct the wrong one, but it will not show the reasons behind which learners use/ avoid a certain structure in their L2 production.

Moreover, the majority of SLA researches on L1 influence have been done on syntax and single grammatical aspects such as the acquisition of affixes, forming past tense, articles ...etc, whereas L1 influence may also be evident in a whole structure such as the use or non-use of aspect according to the existence or non-existence of this aspect in the L1. For example, a study, similar to this one, has been conducted by

Ageli (1989) during which he tested the verb tense to 'identify which variety of Arabic i. e. MSA (Modern Standard Arabic) or its variety LA (Libyan Arabic) has more influence on the student's English'. Ageli used grammaticality judgement in the form of 'multiple choice test' which is, as mentioned here, only applicable for testing some grammatical elements.

Finally, foreign language learning should be distinguished from second language learning as this is also important in the way a certain structure is acquired or learned. In the former situation, the learner learns the L2 in their L1 environment where the L1 is used more frequently than the L2, which means that the L1 has direct and strong effect on L2 learning, whereas in the latter situation the L1 is to some extent subordinated and therefore its effect is minimized. This, in turn, could indicate that L1 influence is more apparent in foreign language learning contexts and that it does not only stem from the influence of the standard language but also from the varieties of that language as they are used in the environment. In addition, the result of this effect does not only appear in small linguistic segments such as the acquisition of the past form or the  $[-s]$  of the third person, but also appears in the misuse and non-use of some of L2 grammatical structures such as tenses. The influence of L1 on these structures does not seem to have been fully and adequately investigated.

Therefore, the present study focuses on the effect of non-standard Libyan language varieties on learning English. First, it investigates the use of tense, aspect and voice (TAV) systems in modern standard Arabic (MSA), and then it investigates the TAV in Libyan dialects (LD). These two studies are the basics or the foundation upon which the effect of MSA or LD on learning the English TAV is investigated.

The study is conducted in two stages. The first stage focuses on collecting data on TAV in both MSA and LD, and then a comparison and contrast is drawn between the



English language, MSA and LD in terms of using TAV. The LD is represented by the dialect of Zintan inhabitants. The second stage takes place in one of the Libyan universities (Faculty of Teachers in Zintan) to investigate the possible differential impact of this dialect on the learning of English.

To commence, it is important to shed some light on the history of Libya and how wars, local conflicts and external invaders played a part in the distribution of the Libyan population and the spread of its dialects. Secondly, a brief summary of the Libyan tertiary system and universities is provided.

This study is divided into ten chapters. Chapter One is designated for the introduction including some information about how Libyan dialects are affected by the immigrations and wars as well as some information about the educational system of Libyan. In Chapter Two, discussions of the different theories of second Language Acquisition and how these theories vary with regard of L1 influence is provided. Chapter Three talks about the research methods used for this study while Chapter Four is about the TAV English and the TAV of the MSA language is discussed in Chapter Five. The discussion of LD is done in Chapter Six. In Chapter Seven, the TAV of English, MSA and LD are compared and contrasted. Stage two is discussed in Chapter Eight followed by Chapter Nine that is dedicated to a comparison and contrast of the findings of stage one and stage two. The conclusion and the recommendations are mentioned in the final Chapter Ten.

## **1.1. Historical Background of Libya**

Libya has undergone many historical changes that have affected its population. It has been the arena of many invasions and wars that played an important role in the distribution of the inhabitants and their languages.

According to Almezini (1994), the inhabitants of Libya before and during the Islamic invasion were Berbers who are traditionally believed to be descendents of Canaan who came from Palestine.

The first important invasion was in 642 A D. by Arabs who came as conquerors promoting Islam. They were not resisted by the local Berber inhabitants. Rather, the majority of these Bebers converted to Islam and learned the Arabic language and the traditions of the new comers. With the spread of Islam, the local inhabitants started learning the Arabic language and adopted Arab traditions, and soon the Arabic language became dominant. This was due to many factors such as that the local language lacked its cultural dimensions as it was restricted to everyday language, and that the then Islamic shaikhs did not allow the translation of the Holly Quran to any other language. Therefore, the non-Arabs had to learn the Arabic language, Almezini (1994).

Except for a number of Jewish people, other ethnic groups such as Romans and Vandals left Libya or became absorbed into the Arab population, and the Arabic language became the main language, although it continued to be affected by the local languages.

The second invasion occurred in 1049 (Chemal, 1997) by Arabic tribes called the Banū Hilāl who used to live east of the of Nile river. In fact, the majority of these

tribes did not settle in Libya. They passed through to Tunis, but when they passed, they devastated the land and forced the Berbers to move to the mountains. Some of Banū Hilāl tribes went to the south (Fezzan – Sabha region). The Berbers did not tolerate the damage caused by them, so they waged a long war until they managed to take the control of the main cities.

The third and the most important invasion was in 1074 by the Banū Salim. Chemal (1997) claims that almost all the current Arab tribes in Libya are the descendents of the Banū Salim tribes. After Banū Hilāl settled in Tripoli and Tunis, they sent to the closely related groups, Banū Salim, asking them to follow them, so those moved to the west. They were of four tribes, one of whom decided to stay in Berqa, or what was then called ‘Cyrenaica (Benghazi region) while the other three tribes continued on to Tripoli and Tunis. They settled the lands stretching from Sirt (to the east of Tripoli) to Gabes (in south of Tunis). Versteegh (2006 – Vol III) says that Banū Hilāl and Banū Salim are responsible for North Africa’s Arabization. Versteegh divides Libyan dialects into three areas: western area includes Tripoli and Fezzan, Eastren area in Cyrenaic, and transitional zone in Sebha.

Of course, there were many other invasions but they were not so important or severe enough to force inhabitants to move, but they affected the language and traditions of Libya in that they introduced new words to the local language.

One of these events was the Turkish control of Libya from 1551 to 1912. This control, as Chemal, 1997 says, was only official not real. That is, Libya became under the control of Turkish state without occupying it.

The second event was the Italian occupation of Libya. This was a real occupation and Libya was officially declared as an Italian colony. Up till now, Libyan Arabic dialects still use many Italian words.

However, in general, Libyan dialects are considered to be belonging to the Maghrebi group that is characterised by the /n/ prefix for the first person, Versteegh (2006 – Vol III).

Politically, Libya was divided into three regions: Cyrenaica, ‘Berqa’ in the eastern part that includes Benghazi. Fezzan in the southern part includes Sebha, and Tripolitania in the western part includes Tripoli region. When Italy was defeated in the World War II, France took Fezzan region, Britain took Tripolitania (Tripoli region) and America took Cyrenaica (Berqa region). It was not until 1951 that Libya gained its independence and these three regions were re-united under one government.

In fact, this division does not seem to have had a direct effect on Libyan dialects, but the dialects of these regions can be distinguish easily. In fact, as far as accent is concern, almost each town has its own accent, but the dialects of these three regions are distinct. Thus, a person from Tripolitania region can easily tell that the speaker is from the east (Cyrenaica) or the south (Fezzan).

## **1.2. The Libyan Tertiary Education System**

The education system in Libya is divided into three stages: primary stage, which lasts for nine years, secondary stage, three years (some secondary schools last for four years), and university stage which lasts for four years.

Most universities in Libya are public or state universities, that is, they are run and sponsored by the government. There are eleven main universities in Libya. These are: Al-Fateh University in Tripoli ‘now it is called ‘Tripoli University’, Garyounis University in Benghazi, Omar AL-Mukhtar University in Albyda – it is also in Benghazi region situated about two hundred kilometres to the south east of Benghazi), Sebha University in Sebha, The 7<sup>th</sup> of April University in Alzawiya ‘fifty kilometres west of Tripoli’, AlJabal Algarbi University in the Western Mountain west of Tripoli, Atahadi University in Sirt which is located between Tripoli and Benghazi, Nasser University in Tripoli, the 7<sup>th</sup> of October University in Musrata ‘two hundred kilometres to the east of Tripoli’, Asmarya University for Islamic science in Zlitan, and the Open University in Tripoli.

The colleges in each university are distributed in the surrounding cities and towns, and sometimes there are more than one college of the same kind in one university. For example, the colleges of education at the University of Aljabal Algharbi, which include English departments, are in Gharian, Mezda, Kikela, Yafren and Alzintan.

There are two stages at which students choose their field of specialisation. The first is for major specialisation, which takes place at the secondary stage. At this level, two major departments are available to the students, Scientific Department in which the students study some scientific subjects in general, and Arts Department in which students study some other literary and art subjects. The second stage of specialisation is at the tertiary level. At this level, special fields of specialisation are available, for example, those who graduate from the scientific department can only join scientific departments such as physics, chemistry etc, and those who graduate from arts departments join other branches such as education, teaching, history etc.

For specialisation in English, both students from the scientific and arts departments, (this latter is preferred), can join English departments. However, recently, more specific majoring departments have become available for students at the secondary stage. That is, specialisation in English, physics, history etc occurs at the secondary level. Therefore, students who want to study English should choose this specialisation at the secondary not tertiary stage. Therefore, a student starts learning English at secondary stage for three or four years, then continues learning English at university for other four years.

### **1.3. Rationale of the Study**

When I was a teacher at the Faculty of Teachers in Zintan, I noticed that my students, including the advanced ones, avoided using some grammatical structures although they were fully aware and perfectly understood those structures. For example, when writing of their graduate assignments, the fourth year students did not usually use the present perfect or the passive where it is supposed be used. When I asked them to change the tense of some paragraphs into present perfect or into passive, they did that so easily. This and some other frequent similar situations made me think of the reasons why some grammatical structures are utilised (proceduralised) easier and quicker than some other structures? The most likely answer to this is that the first language (L1) plays a role in this. However, when examining the Arabic language, it was clear that these avoided structures did exist in the students' L1. Also, when reading some research work on second language acquisition, I found out that some researchers such as Zdorenko and Paradis 2008: Vol. 24: 230, and Clahsen and Muysken (1989) who had done studies on L1

influence have ruled out L1 influence. Some other researchers termed this non-use as avoidance. Ellis (2008), for example, said that the non-use of a structure can only be claimed as avoidance when learners are aware that there is a problem and do not have full understanding of the target language structure. Dechert and Raupach (1989: 23) also assumed that “any non-occurrence of a structure in an environment where that structure might have occurred is an instance of avoidance”. Thus, both Ellis (2008), and Dechert and Raupach (1989) have down played the L1 influence saying that it would be the L2 structure that resulted in avoidance rather than the L1.

Nonetheless, I noticed that the majority of the avoided structures did not exist in the students’ L1 dialect. Thus, I thought that this phenomenon might be the result of L1 influence and should not necessarily be classified as avoidance because the learners knew the avoided structures and how they are used. The focus was now on the students’ language dialects as the potential cause of the non-use of some grammatical forms.

#### **1.4. The Aim of the Study**

Presuming that the L1 dialects could have a substantial influence on the use of tense, aspect and voice, this study focuses on the notion that ‘the avoidance or mis-use of tense, aspect and voice could be the result of the presence or absence of these forms in the learners’ L1’.

Thus, this study targets the influence of language dialects on language learning. It tries to answer the following questions:

- 1- To what extent do tense, aspect and voice exist in both Modern Standard Arabic and Libyan dialects?
- 2- Are there any syntactic and morphological differences between Modern Standard Arabic and Libyan dialects in expressing tense, aspect and voice?
- 3- Are there differences between Modern Standard Arabic and Libyan dialects on the one hand and English on the other concerning the use of tense, aspect and voice?
- 4- At what level do students learn and use the target structures? 'level' here refers to the four years at university.
- 5- To what extent do these structures exist in the students' written production?
- 6- How do /TAV/ emerge and develop in Libyan university students' output, and to what extent does this development comply with the stages and findings of the preceding studies mentioned above? In other terms, is the emergence and development of these structures affected by the properties of the target language verb (Aspect Hypothesis) or the L1 verb property?

### **1.5. Contribution of the Study**

Firstly, this study contributes to the field of language and linguistics in that it compares and contrasts the existence and use of TAV in English, Modern standard Arabic and Libyan Dialects, and secondly, it contributes to the field of second language acquisition in that it studies the effect of language dialects on learning a second language. These two contributions have not been investigated thoroughly so far.



## **Chapter Two**

### **Literature Review**

Learning a language other than the first one is sometimes inevitable. In Libya, for instance, the Berber language is spoken in the north-west besides the official Arabic language. Children in that region learn their local language (Berber), and then they learn the Arabic language when they are at school or having a conversation with Libyan people from other neighbouring Arabic towns. Other people learn a second language when they travel to countries that have different languages. On other occasions, the second language is introduced to learners as a school subject at their schools and universities. Ellis (1997) states that the globalisation and the invention of the World Wide Web have had a further impact on acquiring a second language as these have expanded communication between people beyond their local speech. The discipline that studies how a second language is acquired or learned is called Second Language Acquisition (SLA). According to Gass and Selinker (2001), SLA is the study of how languages are learned, what is learned, and how learners, with limited second language input, create a new language system. It also includes the study of why some learners achieve some degrees of proficiency in a second language while others do not. In defining the term SLA, it seems to be that all researchers agree on one general concept which is that SLA refers to the process of learning another language after the native language has been learned.

As suggested above, one of the basic and debatable issues in the field of SLA that has emerged and been carried over from theory to theory is the role of the first language in learning or acquiring a second one.

The role of L1 has fluctuated in different theories that have emerged in this field of second language acquisition such as the behaviourist theory, mentalist theory, and cognitive theory. The present study discusses L1 influence in these theories as well as in some other hypotheses and models of language acquisition.

### **2.1. Behaviourist Theory**

This psychological theory was founded by the Russian psychologist Pavlov and Watson and then supported by Bloomfield, Mowrer and Skinner. The main principles of this theory are built on the analysis of stimulus-response interaction. It basically considers that all learning is establishing habits through reinforcement and reward. Behaviourist theory was developed in laboratories where experiments on animals tested the principles of stimulus and response. It emphasises that human and animals learn by habit formation through trial and error. That is, babies learn their native language through varied babbling. As they are rewarded for this babbling, further articulations are induced. In this way babies continue emitting individual sounds and group of sounds until they start combining sentences. The accepted utterances are reinforced by approval and the unaccepted utterances are inhibited by lack of reward. Little by little their utterances are internalised until they gradually learn the speech of the community in which they are growing up (Demirezen 1988:vol 3: 135).

### 2.1.1. Behaviourist View of L1 Influence

In learning a second language, the main obstacle, according to this theory, is the influence of old habits of the first language. The learner has to build new habits. The difficulty of learning comes from the differences between the native and the target language. It is believed that the learner's first language (L1) influences their learning of the second language (L2) either positively or negatively depending on the similarities and dissimilarities between the native language and the target one.

The behaviourists' definition of transfer (Arabisk 2006) is that it is technically used to refer to the process of the automatic use of past learner behaviour in the attempt to produce new responses. Behaviourists tend to distinguish two types of transfer, negative and positive transfer. As Arabski (2006) puts it, negative transfer results in error because the old habit is different from the new one, whereas the positive transfer results in correct performance.

For example, although the commonest sentence structure in Arabic is normally a verbal sentence, it can also be a nominal one as follows: (a) subject – verb - object, or (b) subject - verb – object which is the same as in English. It is noticed that Arabic learners do not find difficulty writing English sentences in the correct order. This is a positive transfer. On the other hand, the word order of adjectives is different from that in English. In Arabic, the noun comes before its modifier. Therefore, Arabic learners of English may write the sentence **our teacher is a nice man** with the adjective **nice** after the noun **man**, \* **our teacher is a man nice**.

## 2.2. Mentalist Theory

This theory is the most influential theory in SLA and was developed in America in 1960s by Noam Chomsky and later by Eric Lenneberg (Demirezen 1989. Vol.4:153). It came as a reaction against behaviouristic learning theory and is based on the premise that inborn knowledge is responsible for language acquisition not the surrounding environment. In 1959, (Mitchell and Myles2004), Chomsky published his book which reviewed Skinner's theory and criticised it on the basis of many issues such as that it did not account for language creativity and the abstractness of the input, i.e. the logical problem (discussed below).

The major principle of the mentalist theory is that: "everybody learns a language not because they are subject to a similar conditioning process, but because they possess an inborn capacity which permits them to acquire a language as a normal maturational process.", (Demirezen 1989: 153).

Mentalism is interesting for SLA researchers, as White (1990: vol 12) puts it, because it accounts for the *logical problem* of language acquisition: the fact that language can be acquired in circumstances where many aspects of the target grammar are not evident in the input and this input is degenerate and incomplete. In other words, although the child is exposed to a limited number of utterances, they can produce an unlimited number of utterances. Moreover, the child is rarely provided with the negative evidence, that is, the explanation of why a certain utterance is ungrammatical. So, linguists and SLA researchers postulate that there is an innate form of knowledge to help to explain the acquisition of language.

Chomsky later called this innate knowledge Language Acquisition Device (LAD) which includes universal grammar (UG).

According to this bio-linguistic view of language, the process of language learning is reducing this universal superset of features into the subset of these features which represent the particular grammar to which the child is exposed (Rothman and Iverson 2008:Vol. 15:1).

After birth, a child undergoes learning levels which are manipulated by the exposure of the child to language input from their parents. At each level, the child forms hypotheses and tests them in linguistic formations. When their hypotheses fall short, he modifies them and induces new rules. As he grows up, his hypotheses become gradually more complex until he becomes a competent speaker of the language he is born into.

Although this linguistic theory is primarily concerned with first language and is exclusively limited to child's language acquisition (Johnson 2004), it has had an impact on ideas about second language acquisition. Mitchell and Myles (2004) argue that UG is a theory of natural languages and excluding its effect on SLA means that the second language is not natural. The study of UG in second language acquisition centres on the question whether or not UG is available for L2 learners.

With regard of this, White (1990: vol. 12:6) introduces three positions: one posits that UG is accessible to L2 learners, and the second claims that it is no longer available, particularly for adults. The third position argues that UG is partially available.

Those who advocate the accessibility of UG support their claim by restating the logical problem of language acquisition and by the fact of similarities of L1 and L2 learning stages. The second position argues that UG is inaccessible and this is proved by the fact that L2 acquisition is different from L1 acquisition. These L1-L2

differences and difficulties that are faced by L2 learners are caused by the critical period in child maturation and lack of UG. Those who adopt the third claim that UG is partially available argue that UG is accessible through L1, that is, UG aspects encoded in L1 can still be tapped.

### **2.2.1. Mentalist View of L1 Influence**

Transfer within the framework of this theory is associated with UG. There are many models and hypothesis which give contrasting view of the existence of transfer in L2 learning. In the full access model, Lakshmanan and Selinker (2001: Vol.17) claim that Universal Grammar is accessible to learners directly without the involvement of the L1. This claim is also supported by Epstein et al (1996:Vol. 19) who tested functional categories in children and adult Japanese learners of English and found that these functional categories are available to both groups from early stages and concluded that UG principles are available to L2 learners. In doing this, Epstein et al challenged the other two hypotheses, (no access and partial access), insisting that UG is fully accessible; consequently, they ruled out the effect of transfer.

However, in their study, they did not confirm whether or not the functional categories exist in their subjects' L1. Secondly, the subjects had been residing in an English speaking country for three years (children) and one year (adults) and they had an average of formal English instruction ranges from three years and seven years. In this case, they are not at their early stages of language learning, and it is not guaranteed that they have not been exposed to functional categories in the environment during their stay in the country.

Surprisingly, the opponents of the no access hypothesis (Clahsen and Muysken 1989: Vol. 5) have also ruled out the role of transfer when they studied the learning

of German language by Turkish learners who have the same verb order (Verb-final structure). These Turkish learners produced first-verb order. Therefore, Clahsen and Muysken concluded that: “If transfer was to play an important role in the early stages, we would expect Turkish learners of German and Dutch to come up with an SOV system.”

The Full Transfer/Full Access model, Ying (1999:Vol. 15), says that the first state of L2 learning is the final state of L1. That is, the learner relies fully on the grammar of his L1 “full transfer” and as they are exposed to the input, they reconstruct their L2 grammar from options of UG, “full access”. This means that learners start with transferring L1 structures to L2 and at the same time they have access to UG, from which they modify their L2 grammar. In other words, transfer is more evident at the beginning stages and among less proficient learners. However, Ying notes that SLA research results are contrasting with regard of L1 transfer. While some researchers found evidence of native language transfer, other studies reported little transfer.

Another hypothesis has recently been proposed. It is called ‘Fluctuation Hypothesis’ and based on the premise that:

“L2 learners have full access to UG principles and parameter-settings. L2 learners fluctuate between different parameter-settings until the input leads them to set the parameter to the appropriate value.”

(Zdorenko and Paradis 2008: Vol. 24: 230)

Within this hypothesis, Zdorenko and Paradis tested the acquisition of English articles by two different groups of learners, the first group’s L1 has an article system (Spanish, Romania and Arabic) while the second group’s L1 does not have an article system (Chinese, Korean and Japanese).

It is expected that the learners whose L1 has no article system will fluctuate between different parameters until the L2 input guides them to set the parameter correctly.

One of the intended aims of the study is to answer the question: “Is the [- article] group more likely to omit articles than the [+article] group due to L1 transfer?”

They discovered that both groups misused /the/, and the [+ *article*] group did not transfer definiteness settings to L2 indicating that L1 has no influence. That is, fluctuation overrides transfer. Therefore, Zdorenko and Paradis (2008: Vol. 24: 230) assume that these young learners from both groups have access to UG. However, they highlighted the fact that the subjects used the definite article /the/ more accurately than their use of /a/ in indefinite contexts.

As the majority of SLA researchers acknowledge that L1 influence is inevitable, the argument now turns on which type of UG is transferred as UG is classified into marked and unmarked features. Ellis (2008) describes *marked* features as that features of grammar that are unique of one language and they are usually unnatural or (less natural) and their occurrence in the world’s language is restricted, whereas the *unmarked* are common among languages. He also says that the transferability of grammatical features depends on the degree of markedness. L2 learners resist transferring marked forms. White (1987: vol.9), however, investigated the hypothesis that marked forms of L1 are transferrable and are the source of error in L2 learning. She tested preposition stranding and double-object structures which are grammatical in English but are ungrammatical in French. The subjects consisted of two groups. One was English native speakers and the other was of mixed backgrounds. She discovered that this hypothesis is not supported for preposition stranding as the subjects did not accept this structure in French, but it is supported for double-object structures where all learners accepted it in French. She concluded that the view that marked forms are transferrable is partially supported by this study and that transfer is not confined to unmarked forms only.



This type of classification and investigation involves many languages but not only an L1 and L2. This means that when determining that a certain feature is a marked, it has to be unique to a particular language at least for the subjects involved in the study. For example, White says that the structure “double object” is marked and does not exist in the languages of the subject although one of them is an Arabic learner and this feature does exist in Arabic language. In this case where the double-object structure exists in Arabic and English, this structure is not a marked feature, at least for the Arabic subject involved in White’s study.

Importantly, there are three facts that seem to be neglected about the way transfer occurs in the above mentioned studies. First, transfer is not permanent. That is, it does not occur at all learning stages and it is rarely fossilized. It is mentioned that transfer is more effective in early stages. One of the main causes, if not the sole cause, of transfer is lack of knowledge. For example, if the meanings of some lexical items and all parts of a sentence are presented to a learner who knows nothing about L2 and is asked to form a sentence out of these items, they will definitely combine it on basis of their L1 knowledge. An Arabic learner will probably form sentence as follows: “\*Bought Ali car nice.” As they progress in L2, they understand that English sentences start with subject, they modify this sentence to: “Ali bought car nice.” Then they notice that adjectives come before its modified noun and so on.

What is clear from the previously mentioned studies of UG accessibility that rule out transfer is that most of the subjects involved in those studies have been exposed to the target language for a period of time long enough to eradicate some of transferred features.

The second fact is that L1 influence including transfer does not necessarily exist in syntactic domains. When a certain structure is [-] in L1 and [+] in L2, and learners

have little knowledge of how this L2 structure is properly used, they would fluctuate when using it. So, fluctuation could be interpreted as the transmission phase from transfer to L2 learning.

Thirdly, the method that is used for data elicitation is in most cases grammaticality judgments. This method could be useful in testing grammatical aspects and may identify one type of transfer, but it is not suitable to be used for determining the existence or non-existence of L1 influence and transfer altogether, particularly, the types of L1 influence investigated in this study.

### **2.3. Cognitive Theory**

As mentioned above, the behaviourist (or the environmentalist) theory emphasises the environment and outside stimuli as the basis for learning, and the mentalist (or nativist) theory that attacks it takes the opposing side by claiming that an innate form of knowledge is responsible for language learning, ruling out the effect of the environment. Cognitive theory considers both of the environmental effect (input) and the human mind. It views SLA as similar to any other learning of skills, focusing on how the human brain processes and learns new information. The difference between linguistic theory and the cognitive approach, as Mitchell and Myles (1998), argue, is that the linguistic approach believes that human beings are endowed with a language-specific module in their mind; the cognitive approach sees language learning as inseparable from other aspects of cognition. The human mind has the capacity to process all kinds of information including linguistic information. In fact, cognitivists criticise UG theory on the grounds that it views the speaker/hearer as an idealised receptacle of UG blueprints rather than as a social being (Mitchell and Myles 1998:69). The other difference is that the mentalist approach prioritizes

linguistic competence while the cognitive approach focuses on performance, although it does not neglect competence.

However, there is no clear dividing line between mentalist theory and the cognitive approach. There are researchers who believe that L1 is constrained by UG but L2 is not. Others say that some aspects of L1 are innate and other aspects are not. Furthermore, and according to how much innateness is considered, Wolfe-Quentero (1996:Vol.12) classifies SLA theories into three groups, environmental, nativist and interactionist.

Based on this closeness between mentalist and cognitive theories, Mitchell and Myles (1998) grouped cognitive theorists into two groups (a) the constructionist or emergentist group, researchers such as Nick Ellis, MacWhinney and Tomasello who think that language is inseparable from other cognition skills rejecting the position of innate knowledge. (b) The processing approach group, researchers who view language knowledge as partially special such as Pienemann, Towell and Hawkins (1994).

As with the discussion of the behaviourist and mentalist theories above, the cognitive approach is not presented in details in this study, rather, it examines how the phenomenon of L1 effect is considered in cognitive theory including the approaches and models within it.

The emergentist's view of language learning and acquisition posit that language is dynamic and emerges from use. Larsen-Freeman (2008:vol.3) says that:

“A new understanding of language then sees language as a self-organizing dynamic system. ...The development of the system is not an act of conformity, but rather of emergence”(287)

She argues that language is created by individuals and communities when communicating not through reference to prior fixed abstract forms.

This SLA theory is known as Dynamic Systems Theory (DST), (Ellis 2007:Vol.10). Within this theory, language is a complex dynamic system where cognitive, social and environmental factors continuously interact.

#### **2.4. Connectionism**

Connectionism, previously termed associativism, depicts the brain as a computer that consists of neural networks, a complex cluster of links between information nodes. These links are strengthened or weakened according to activation. The more activation there is, the stronger the links will be. Learning occurs when the human mind associates elements and creates links between these elements. They become stronger as associations keep recurring. In language learning, connectionists believe that learning depends on the regularities of language input. As the patterns on the basis of these regularities are repeated, they become strengthened and learning occurs.

Sokolik and Smith (1992) investigated gender assignment in French nouns using the connectionist model. They noticed that young children learning their L1 (French) did not find difficulty assigning gender to nouns, even meaningless ones, whereas other French learners took a longer time to acquire this aspect. Sokolik and Smith (1992) attributed this phenomenon to the fact that L2 learners come to the task with some pre-existing patterns of connectivity which interferes with L2 learning.

The role of the L1 according to connectionism is summarized by Ellis (2008) in the following points:

- 1- L1 effect is more obvious at early stages. As L2 learners are exposed to L2 input, they start building a new network that is independent of L1, consequently, L1 gives way to L2 recreation.
- 2- L1 is the major reason why some learners fail to achieve full target language competence. This occurs due to some factors. Ellis mentions two of these factors which are: overshadowing and blocking. The former is when one cue is perceived by the learner as more salient than another. As this is repeated, blocking occurs. In other words, when some adverbial are used for expressing temporal actions, they overshadow aspectual markers. Hence, learners will not acquire aspect. That is to say the adverbial use blocks the acquisition of aspect.

There is another type of L1 influence that occurs in foreign language acquisition (here, foreign language acquisition is distinguished from second language acquisition as the former takes place in classrooms and the input is given in planned doses). In this context, learners usually connect L2 forms with functions by means of L1 functions. That is, learners look for how a particular L1 function is expressed in the L2 or how L2 function is expressed in the L1, function-function mapping. In fact, this seems to me the most obvious evident strategy that is used by foreign language learners, and it accounts for why Arabic learners, for instance, use an Arabic speaking or writing style in producing English.

The extent to which the repetition of the input is needed for the activation and strengthening of the links depends on how easily learners associate or connect the L2 function with its L1 equivalent. When an L2 function has an equivalent L1 function, less input and less activation is needed than when the L2 function does not have L1 equivalent. This fact brings back the notion of similarities and dissimilarities

between the mother tongue and the target language, and this effect of L1 is not necessarily in the phenomenon of positive or negative transfer, but it affects the acquisition of a structure (e.g. aspect) and the time needed for the acquisition.

## **2.5. Competition Model**

One of the models that are closely related to connectionism is the Competition Model. As its name suggests, (Ellis 2008), the Competition Model takes its name from the competition of cues for a particular function. In a sentence “The man I respect a lot.”, for example, there is competition between “the man”, “I” and “a lot” for the agent case. The agent is characterized by word order (usually the first mentioned), agreement (agrees in number with the verb), case (may have morphological marks) and animacy (usually animate). Considering these agent conditions, the phrase “the man” is the winner.

L2 learning under this model occurs through form-function mapping. McLaughlin and Harrington (1990:Vol.10 p. 125) say: In the SLA:

“The task facing the learner is to discover how specific forms are used for specific functions in the new language. These mappings take the place of the rules a learner will internalize in more traditional, linguistic-based approaches.”

The rules are inferred from cues that are supplied by the input. In constructing a language system, learners have to match which cue or form is used with which function. MacWhinney (1998) emphasises feedback as having an important role in learning. The learner changes the incorrectly interpreted cue when they are provided with the correct feedback. MacWhinney emphasises the role of the negative evidence as a source of learning.

McLaughlin and Harrington (1989:Vol.10) tested animacy and word order cues by asking bilingual learners from different backgrounds to determine the agent in grammatical and ungrammatical sentences in L1 and L2. The subjects were of three groups: English native speaker, Japanese native speakers and Japanese learners of English. Interestingly, although this model is concerned with how language is used (Gass and Selinker 2001) not with the L1-L2 relationship, the results show that Japanese learners of English were influenced by their L1 processing strategies when interpreting L2 sentences as they relied on animacy in determining agents.

This means that L1 influence exists and this type of influence is different from the types investigated so far in that learners transferred strategies not structures.

### **2.5.1. The Competition Model View of L1 Influence**

As explained above, L1 influence is admitted by this model. Robinson (2001) posits that learning an L2 is parasitic on the structure of L1. That is, the L2 does not have a separate conceptual structure, but the learning of an L2 is simply expressing the same idea or thought as in the L1 in the L2. Macwhinney uses the Spanish 'silla' meaning 'chair' in English as an example. When an English learner of Spanish says 'silla', they already have the conceptual representation of this word, but simply using a different way of processing it.

Macwhinney accepts the idea of positive transfer saying that not all kinds of transfer are negative. He says that a great deal of transfer occurs smoothly and does not produce errors, and some types can be quickly corrected.

## **2.6. Information Processing Model**

The Information Processing Model was first advocated by cognitive psychologists, and then it was adapted to language learning in L1 and L2. Mitchell and Myles (1998) mention two approaches to this model: McLaughlin's model and Adaptive Control of Thought (ACT). Actually, there is no much difference between these two approaches. They both view learning as a cognitive process that involves automatization of components and reconstructing of the input as performance improves. These two notions of automatization and reconstructing are the core of the cognitive theory.

Automatisation is developed in the work of psychologists Shiffrin and Schneider (1977) who posit that information processing is either controlled or automatic. MacLaughlin (1984) distinguishes automatic from controlled processing in that the former is quick and requires little attention whereas the latter is slow as is controlled by attention. Learning involves a shift from controlled to automatic processing via practice.

First, L2 learners resort to controlled processing which involves a temporary activation of particular information nodes in the memory. During this stage, maximum attention is required on the part of the learner. This step of activation takes place in short-term memory. When the learner gets more used to handling the process by repeated activation (practice), these sequences become automatized and they are stored as units in the long-term memory. Once they are there, they can be made available whenever the situation requires them, and they are difficult to modify (Cook 1993).



As far as L1 influence is concerned, the idea of reconstructing and reorganising refers to reconstructing and reorganising of the previously associated knowledge of (L1). Gass and Selinker (2001: 209) say that the associated patterns of the L1 interfere with the establishing of the L2 network. They also comment on the process of reconstructing and reorganising:

“Integrating new information in one’s system necessitates changes to parts of one’s existing system, thereby reconstructing or reorganising the system. Mere addition of new elements does not constitute reconstructing.”

This claim of reconstructing and reorganising seems to be shared by behaviourists who believe that in order for L2 learning to be successful, the L1 must be unlearned.

The second model of information processing is the Adaptive Control of Thought (ACT), usually called Anderson’s ACT. This is not significantly different from the previous one, but it has a wider range and uses different terminology, Mitchell and Myles (1998). One of the main differences between this and the previous model is that this model uses three types of memory instead of two. These are working memory that equals short-term memory, while the long-term memory is divided into two, declarative long-term memory and procedural long-term memory. This division is necessary because declarative and procedural knowledge are different and stored differently, Mitchell and Myles (1998). Mitchell and Myles illustrate this difference with the example of /-s/ marker of the third person. In a classroom, a learner may know that in the present tense, the verb takes *-/s/* when the subject is a third person singular (declarative knowledge), but this learner might not apply this rule when writing or speaking. This is because the learner has not proceduralized the declarative knowledge.

### **2.6.1. L1 Influence in the Information Processing Model**

Obviously, this theory and behaviourist theory have some common elements. First, the idea of association in cognitive theory corresponds to the notion of stimulus-response conditioning in that a learner creates links between elements. Secondly, the process of automatisisation through practice is equivalent, to some extent, to habit formation, the general principle of behaviourism. Finally, in second language acquisition, the cognitive theory reintroduces the case of similarities and dissimilarities between the L1 and L2 and how this affects L2 learning. This is clearly stated by Mitchell and Myles (1998:83):

“...it assumed that L2 learners come to the task with some pre-existing patterns of connectivity which interfere with the task in hand.”

### **2.7. MOGUL Model**

The MOGUL (Modular On-line Growth and Use of Language) is introduced by Sharwood Smith and J. Truscott, and is influenced by the work of Jackendoff on the language faculty and modularity (Smith and Truscott cited in Gabry's-Baker 2008). It views the language system as a set of modules and connectors. These modules are: phonological structure |PS| and syntactic structure |SS| as well as an interface system that connects these modules to each other and to the outside, the Auditory Structure |AS|. All these are connected to the conceptual system |CS| which is responsible for the interpretation and encoding of meaning. Each of these modules has its own processor that functions as a selector from the competing elements in the corresponding module.

In language production and comprehension, this model depicts the language system in the human brain as a factory where the elements are assembled in production line.

First, in production, the construction of a message emerges from the conceptual structure |CS|. This will activate the interface between the |CS| and the syntactic structure |SS| which in turn triggers the interface between |SS| and phonological structure |PS|. This chain is matched to the motor structure responsible for the articulation of the sequence. So, the on-line structure takes the following route:

CS  $\Longrightarrow$  SS  $\Longrightarrow$  PS  $\Longrightarrow$  articulator system.

In comprehension, this process is reversed, (Sharwood-Smith 2008)

In cases of language variations or bilingualism, the different elements of these variations are all stored in the same lexicon memory, but they have separate resting levels. Therefore, only the strongly activated elements that are at the higher level and suit the stimulus will be selected by the processor.

SLA in the view of MOGUL involves adding elements to the existing set of structures through the same universal processing mechanism.

### **2.7.1. MOGUL View of L1 Influence**

Sharwood Smith and Truscott (2008) argue against the term transfer and prefer the term cross-linguistic influence. The reasons for their argument are the same as those discussed in the L1 influence section below.

Concerning L1 influence, Sharwood Smith and Truscott distinguish between language perception and production. In perception, they claim that the major reason for L1 influence is that L1 syntactic structure affects L2 syntactic structure through phonological structure. The past tense form is used by Sharwood Smith and Truscott (2008) to illustrate this claim.

In English, the past tense of the regular verbs has three realisations /-d/, /-id/ and /-t/ as in *paid*, *waited* and *walked*. It is also known that English native speakers drop the final /d/ and /t/ sound especially in consonant clusters.

The structure chain that is formed in production |CS| – |SS| – |PS| – |AS|, this chain is reversed in perception: |AS| – |PS| – |SS| – |CS|. In the last two structures, syntactic structure |SS| and conceptual structure |CS|, the concept of past is innate, that is, it is UG since this concept exists in all languages. Therefore, learners should acquire the association of the concept of the past with its |SS| representations and appropriate |PS| representations which are truly novel in this domain. When the |PS| receives the input from the Auditory Structure |AS|, it constructs a representation of that input including any affixes before this |PS| representation is fed to the |SS|. So the representation of the |SS| depends on the |PS| input that is received from the |AS|. On this basis, the final segment in casual speech is lost, Sharwood Smith and Truscott (2008), argue that the past tense marker is likely to be lost. Thus, the hearer will receive the input of the past without past marker. If this input is misinterpreted by the |AS|, the |SS| representation will also be affected. Hence, Sharwood Smith and Truscott (2008) claim that general success in SLA correlates with the ability to construct correct |AS| and |PS| representations. Of course, there are some other factors that influence success in SLA such as the presence of written input and metalinguistic knowledge obtained through instruction. Sharwood Smith and Truscott also suggest that language acquisition is enhanced by the written form of the input.

Sharwood Smith and Truscott model discuss the influence of L1 on L2 and vice versa in the MOGUL when the two languages are already there in the learner's mind (bilingualism) through the notion of "competing". The pattern of L1 influence

discussed above also seems to be focused on morphology as with the acquisition of past tense. In other words, MOGUL appears to account for the morphological effect of the L2 input on L2 acquisition which, in fact, has nothing to do with L1 influence. Interestingly, the MOGUL modulation of the language faculty could focus our attention on what SLA really involves. In first language acquisition, the child builds up their conceptual repertoire by being exposed to items in the environment. This exposure is usually in the auditory or/and visual form like when a child sees a cat, and hears that this is a / kæt/. Second language learners already have this kind of conceptual repertoire which is more or less universal: i.e. when learners from different linguistic backgrounds are asked to draw a picture of a domestic animal that chases mice, they will all draw a cat. So, what is needed by L2 learners is not the same as for L1 learners (what is this creature?) but they learn how this animal is expressed in the target language. That is what the |PS| and |SS| representations of this animal are. It is the same with phrases, clauses and whole utterances. Another example is when a learner is asked to talk about an experience they have had. The events and settings of that story occurred back in their L1 environment but what is different here is the phonological and syntactic representations. So, as mentioned in the Competition Model section, second language learning is to a great extent function-function mapping.

Within this perception of SLA, L1 influence can be evident in two situations. First, the influence emerges from similarity and dissimilarity between the L1 and L2. In this case, it is the time of the acquisition that is affected not the acquisition itself. Thus, where the L1 and L2 structure are similar, less time and exposure is needed for this structure to be acquired, while the more different the structure is, the more time is needed, but eventually the structure could be acquired. The second situation of L1

influence occurs during the process of function-function mapping. This occurs in two ways: (a) when a structure exists in L1 (+) but a learner does not know how it is expressed in L2. In this case, they will tend to use the L1 structure; (b) when a structure does not exist in L1 (-) and it exists in L2 (+). In this case, a learner will recourse to the conceptual structure (CS) and look for alternatives to this form. For instance, in Arabic, present perfect does not exist therefore a learner will probably use the past tense instead.

This situation means that L1 influence can occur in any of modules of the MOGUL model: |AS|, |PS|, |SS|, and |CS|. For illustration, I will term the influence in each module a flaw, thus, (ASF) refers to the influence affecting the Auditory Structure |AS| when a learner knows the concept (naturally), and the syntactic |SS| and phonological |PS| representations of this concept are correct but the structure motor |AC| is unable to produce it correctly due to unfamiliarity of the sound. For example, when an English speaker finds difficulty producing some alveolar voices such as [ ق ]]. The (PSF) occurs when the |CS| and |SS| representations are correctly associated and the |AS| is capable of producing the segment correctly but a learner mispronounces it as in this case the past tense affixes provided by Sharwood Smith and Truscott in the MOGUL model. It should be noted here that this type of flaw is not necessarily the result of L1 influence but is more likely to be the effect of L2 input. Sometimes an utterance is correctly pronounced and is appropriate but ungrammatical i.e. |SSF|. Finally, an utterance might be pronounced |AS| correctly and syntactically structured |SS| correctly but it is inappropriate |CSF|. This type of flaw typically reflects the cultural aspects. That is, when a person uses grammatically and phonologically correct utterance but is misplaced sometimes due to culture differences.

## **2.8. The Phenomenon of L1 Influence on Learner Language**

The last section dealt with the influence of L1 on the acquisition of an L2 and how SLA theories viewed this phenomenon. This section sheds some light on the phenomenon of L1 influence and language transfer showing its types in learner language.

As shown in the previous sections, the role of L1 has fluctuated in second language acquisition theory. In fact, the debate over the effect of L1 has continued among researchers. Ellis (2008), for example, did a research on Japanese learners of English and concluded that learners do not have recourse to L1. Ellis (2008) acknowledged interference but argued that it has little effect. Dulay et al (1982) supported this claim when they noticed that only 5 % of errors in their study were the result of interference.

The effect of the L1 is inevitable and to what extent it exists in the learning of L2 is determined by many factors that are discussed later in this section. Kellerman and Smith (c1986) commented on the increasing number of conferences on language transfer and cross-linguistic influence as a proof of the recognition that the possession of one language can affect the learning of a second one.

Not only is the existence of influence a moot topic, also the term transfer is questioned by many researchers such as Dechert and Raupach (1989), Rutherford (1983), Gass and Selinker (1983), and Kellerman and Smith (1986) claiming that it is inadequate. According to them, transfer is an ambiguous term and there is no a generally accepted agreement of what transfer actually is, and that it is closely associated with the discredited theory of behaviourism. In particular, Kellerman and Smith (1986) claim that transfer and influence should not be employed as they

constrain freedom of thinking. They pinpoint the need for a term that describes the influence of L1 on L2 and also the influence of L2 on L1. The best term to express this irrespective of its direction is *Cross-Linguistic Influence* as not only does it describe the transfer directions, but also incorporates other influence phenomena such as borrowing and avoidance. However, Ellis (2008) posits that cross-linguistic influence and transfer could be used interchangeably.

Gass and Selinker (1983), define interference as: “those instances of deviation from the norms of either language which occur in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarities with more than one language.”

Although this definition seems to be about speech, it appears to include all facets of L1 influence including borrowing and avoidance as well as some other non-linguistic forms.

## **2.9. Types and Dimensions of L1 Influence**

As mentioned in the discussion of the term cross-linguistic influence, this term was coined to cover both directions of influence. From Weinreich’s definition, it is clear that there are some forms of non-linguistic influence. Odlin, in (McGroarty 2005), distinguishes two transfer dimensions (1) trilingual and multilingual dimension where the L1 influences L2 and L2 influences L3 and so on, and (2) bidirectional transfer during which L1 influences L2 and L2 influences L1.

According to the theories studied so far, such as the behaviourism, mentalism and cognitive theory, L1 influence is broadly classified into either positive or negative transfer. However, the following section discusses other phenomena of influence. These phenomena include borrowing, avoidance, and conceptual transfer.



### **2.9.1. Borrowing**

Borrowing is a performance phenomenon that is well-known through the history of linguistic studies. It refers to the use of linguistic features of one language in the performance of another (Gass and Selinker 1983). Gass and Selinker did not specify the mother tongue because they claim that this is not the sole potential source of borrowing. Any language that is known to the learner is considered to be a source of borrowing. Kellerman and Smith (1986) support this claim and add that borrowing can occur even if a language is only superficially known to the learner. They introduce two forms of borrowing terming them ‘false friends’ and ‘wholesale’ borrowing. The former refers to the act of using a morphologically similar but semantically different word. The latter means taking over a word from L1 to L2 unmodified. All this is summarized by Haugen’s definition of linguistic borrowing “the attempt by the speaker to produce in one language the patterns which he has learned in another.” ( Gass and Selinker: 1983: 56-57)

Eppert (1983) distinguishes borrowing from structural transfer. When unable to express a certain concept, a learner will borrow something from their native language. However, as these borrowings are variable and dependent on the situation, they are not incorporated into their interlanguage; therefore, this phenomenon is regarded as part of performance. Structural transfer, on the other hand, is the result of repeated successful borrowing. The forms that are borrowed and used repeatedly will be incorporated into the interlanguage as part of learning process.

Borrowability is determined by factors such as language distance and learner’s knowledge of the target language. Gass and Selinker (1983) say that borrowability is a feature of perception of the first and second language. They quoted Kellerman

(1977) who shows that if the two languages are distant, borrowability is less evident. In fact, borrowing from a language that is phonologically completely different will not be successful at all especially lexical borrowing. In this situation, it is just like leaving a space in a sentence and the listener or reader has to fill in that gap with a suitable word. In other words, unless the context helps clarify the meaning of the borrowed item, the receiver will not be able to get the message. The second factor is the learner's knowledge of the target language. Corder (1983) argues that as knowledge of the target language increases, borrowing decreases. Naturally, where a learner knows the correct form in the target language, there is no need for them to borrow from other languages.

Not all researchers attempt to distinguish between borrowing and transfer. Rather, some, such as Corder (1983) in Ellis (2008), view transfer as communication strategy terming it borrowing. In this study, I distinguish borrowing from transfer in two respects. First, borrowing is more related to lexical items whereas transfer I believe involves grammatical rules. The second aspect is that unlike borrowing, transfer is not affected by language distance. It can occur between any two different languages.

### **2.9.2. Avoidance**

Contrastive analysis and error analysis focus on the prediction or the production of learners' errors. Based on similarities and differences between the native language and the target one, contrastive analysis predicts where learners will produce errors. Even the explanatory form explains errors after they are produced and so does errors analysis. Both of them neglect one of the most complicated but important aspects which is avoidance. This is important in that the effect of the L1, as Ellis (2008)

argues, is evident not in learners' errors but in their omission i.e. avoidance. This is complicated in that it is not easy to distinguish avoidance from ignorance or incomplete learning. In order to claim that the non-use of a target language structure as avoidance, Dechert and Raupach (1989) condition it with a learner's demonstration of at least formal knowledge of that structure. Ellis (2008:357) says that the identification of avoidance can only be reasonable if a learner knows what they are avoiding, because it could be the result of personal preference. However, many studies of avoidance assume that: "any non-occurrence of a form in an environment where that form might have occurred is an instance of avoidance." (Dechert and Raupach 1989:22)

As it is invisible in learners' production, avoidance cannot be easily distinguished from ignorance or incomplete learning as pointed by Dechert and Raupach (1989). The only way to identify the occurrence of avoidance in learners' production, according to Ellis (2008:357), is when the learners demonstrate knowledge of the avoided structure, and there is evidence that L2 native speakers would use the avoided form in the same context.

In an attempt to sort out this complexity, Kellerman (1992) distinguishes three situations where avoidance would occur.

- 1- Avoidance occurs when learners are aware that there is a problem and do not have full understanding of the target language form. Gass and Selinker (1983) states that avoidance can be predicted if the rule is consciously learned but not acquired.
- 2- Avoidance occurs when learners know the target language form but find it too difficult to use in certain circumstances; in other words, when learners are

not sure of the correct form. This is evident in Schachter (1971) study where Japanese learners of English avoided using certain types of clauses because they recognised the difference between their native language and English language (Ellis 2008).

- 3- Avoidance occurs when learners are aware of the correct form, but unwilling to use it. That is personal preference.

In situations where learners are not sure of the correct form or they have little understanding, avoidance may not always occur as some learners may be willing to take risks. These learners are described by Dulay and et al (1982) as guessers. Unlike avoiders, guessers are willing to try even when their acquisition of the relevant form is not perfect.

However, the answer to the question highlighted by Dechert and Raupach (1989) “how can avoidance be distinguished from incomplete learning or ignorance” still depends on the learners themselves.

In fact, the issue is not distinguishing avoidance from incomplete learning or ignorance, but it is whether or not avoidance is the result of these two sources or if it is the result of personal preference, as suggested by Ellis.

Viewing avoidance as a type of L1 influence, I would exclude instances of avoidance that are caused by these three sources, incomplete learning, ignorance or personal preference. Personal preference is simply a personal matter. It has nothing to do with one’s native language. Ignorance and incomplete learning are almost the same and the L1 does not cause learners to be ignorant. For example, if a group of learners do not know or have little knowledge of a particular structure in the target language and they therefore avoid it, others with the same mother tongue and who know that

particular structure, they will use it. The type of avoidance that is considered under the category of L1 influence is that which is caused by non-existence of a particular linguistic form in the L1 or by language distance. As an example of non-existence, most Arabic learners of English avoid using some perfect structures as these do not exist in Arabic language. Language distance, on the other hand, and as Dechert and Raupach (1989), argues it, leads to avoidance. These two reasons for avoidance mean that a certain structure is either unfamiliar or too difficult for learners. A distinction must be drawn here between ignorance and incomplete learning on the one hand and difficulty on the other hand. Ignorance and incomplete learning are more or less dependent on learners themselves while the latter is the result of the nature of structure of the target languages.

### **2.10. Conceptual Transfer**

The study of this type of transfer is still in its infancy. According to Odlin (2005), it began only ten years ago and therefore studies are more exploratory than thorough examinations. It is linked to the notion of linguistic relativity, which concerns the effect of thought on language and how the native language affects the way people view the world. In second language acquisition, this effect of thought is evident as shown by Odlin (2005) who investigated two groups of L1 Finnish and L1 Swedish learners of English. These two groups used different verbs and prepositions in describing motion events and spatial relations. Another study was conducted by Von Stutterheim (2005) in Ellis (2008) who looked at the capacities of highly proficient bilingual regarding organising information in different languages and found that their capacities differ significantly from those of native speakers.

Besides the linguistic system, conceptual transfer should include non-linguistic features as well (Ellis 2008). Ellis mentioned two PhD theses by Yoshiok (2005) and Stam (2006), who conducted studies on gesture and found that some learners displayed L1 influence although their L2 speech was accurate and fluent.

The debate in this aspect focused on distinguishing between meaning and conceptual transfer. Whereas Ijaz (1986) assumed that meaning transfer is the same as conceptual transfer, Odlin contradicted her proving this with the study of Polish learners of English using a first-person plural with a singular referent. It is absurd, according to Odlin, to think that Poles cannot conceptually distinguish between singular and plural referents. He goes on to generalise that: “All conceptual transfer involves meaning transfer but not all meaning transfer involves conceptual transfer. Conceptual transfer is a subset of meaning transfer.” (Odlin 2005:6)

Summing up, I have made a distinction between grammatical, meaning and conceptual transfer, although this differentiation is not clear cut. Transfer in general includes all these three types of transfer. I use grammatical transfer to distinguish it from meaning transfer, including syntactic and morphological features. Meaning transfer describes the semantic and pragmatic cases of influence (Odlin 2005:5). Conceptual transfer includes the effect of the learner’s perception on L2 learning. As discussed above, it could also include non-linguistic features.

## **2.11. Transfer Load and Constraints**

When and how much a learner relies on their mother tongue is not a haphazard matter, but it is determined by many factors and constraints. A speaker, for example, will rely on their native language if they find themselves unable to express a message

in the target language (lack of knowledge). But, what if this learner has enough time to check how this particular message is expressed. A learner, who is concerned about their performance, will struggle to make the speech look perfect. But what if they are risk-takers and do not care about performance as long as the message is understood (personality)? Knowledge, situation, personality and many other factors and constraints promote or inhibit language transfer.

Constraint is defined as: “anything that prevents a learner from either noticing a similarity in the first place or from deciding that similarities are real and helpful one.” (Odlin 2003: 454).

This definition puts the awareness of the similarities and differences between the mother tongue and the target language as the first constraint on transfer. A learner’s perception of the differences between L1 and L2 may prevent transfer, (Kellerman and Smith 1986). Dechert and Raupach (1989) comment that when a learner notices at least superficially similar rules, they will attempt to use the relevant structure more frequently than the one who recognises differences.

“As one surveys the research of the last 20 years, one is struck again and again by how few studies seem to support one of the basic tenets of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (Lado 1957, Stockwell, Bowen and Martin 1965) the greater the linguistic difference between some aspect of the L1 and the L2, the greater the likelihood of interference.” Kellerman (1995. Vol. 15:126)

In this comment, Kellerman reintroduces the principle of contrastive analysis that differentiates between the L1 and L2 as a cause of learning difficulties in the form of interference.

Obviously, many researchers, (Gass and Selinker 1983, Kellerman and Smith 1986, Arabisk 2006, and Ellis 2008) maintain that language distance is a major factor of the frequency of transfer.

In addition to language distance, intensity of transfer is also determined by lack of L2 knowledge. In fact I presume that this factor is stronger than the language distance cause in that when a learner who does not have much knowledge of the target language they will resort to their native language even if the two languages are completely different. Of course in this case they will support this L1 use with heavily reliance on non-verbal expressions such as gestures and mimics. Kellerman and Smith (1986) point out that the less a learner knows about the target language, the more they rely on other prior knowledge. Reliance on L1 or any previously acquired knowledge depends on the proficiency in L2. At the beginning stages, transfer is obvious, and as L2 knowledge increases, the use of L1 decreases (Gass and Selinker 1983, Flynn and O'Neil 1998, Eppert 1982, and Arabisk 2006).

Situations where a learner is and to whom they are talking to are also effective factors of L1 influence. Where a learner is, as meant by Odlin (1989-1990) and Ellis (2008), indicates whether or not the learner is in a classroom. Transfer, especially negative transfer, is less likely in a focused community, that is, in classrooms where the L1 forms are considered intrusive by teachers. In unfocused situations i.e. outside classrooms or in free conversations, learners show less respect to the target language and therefore they resort more freely to the L1. Who the learner is talking to also determines the degree of transfer. Weinreich in Gass and Selinker (1983) noted that transfer is encouraged when both speakers are bilingual. It is also encouraged by the relationship between the speaker and the addressee, e.g. their teacher.

The third constraint of transfer is personality. A person could be an introvert or an extrovert. An introverted person is usually concerned over sounding grammatically correct, consequently they frequently revise their grammar a lot, whereas an



extroverted person focuses on getting their message through, and therefore they are more likely to rely on L1 where the situation demands it, (Dulay et al 1982).

Another factor is age. Arabisk (2006) claims that transfer occurs less frequently among children as their L1 is not strong enough to influence their new L2.

## **2.12. Summary and Conclusion**

This chapter has presented theories of language acquisition and learning and show how they deal with transfer. Three main theories have been discussed: the behaviourist theory, the mentalist theory and the cognitive theory as well as some other models such as the competition model and the MOGUL model.

The behaviourist theory claims that learning is habit formation occurring through stimulus-response conditioning. The wanted behaviour is positively reinforced while the unwanted one is punished by lack of reward. L2 learning is believed to be accomplished in the same way. In order for L2 learners to succeed in learning the target language, they should establish a new set of habits. For this reason, teachers provide their learners with repetitive drills until the new habits are formed. The method used to do this is called audio-lingual method and the syllabus is built on a contrastive study of the native and the target languages because difficulty of learning stems from the differences between the two languages.

The second theory is the mentalist theory developed by Chomsky in 1960s. It came as a reaction against behaviourism. Whereas behaviourism emphasises the environment as the main factor of learning, the mentalist theory believes that an innate knowledge (UG) is responsible for learning and the environment has little, if anything, to do with learning. The main evidence it uses for this claim is that

language is learned in a relatively short time in spite of its highly abstract nature. As far as language teaching is concerned, this theory does not provide any methods for L2 learning. It is merely theoretical.

The last theory discussed in this chapter is the cognitive theory which depicts the human brain as a computer network. It is opposed mentalist theory on that it focuses in performance not competence and takes the view that learning is inseparable from other kinds of skills learning. Under this theory, the connectionism and information processing approach are included. Connectionism approach claims that human brains are just like computers consisting of neural networks and a cluster of links which are strengthened or weakened by practice. The information processing approach looks inside the learner's mind, which is divided into short-term memory and long-term memory, according to Laughlin, and into three elements – working memory, declarative memory and procedural memory according to Anderson's approach.

The second section of this chapter discussed the influence of L1 on learning L2. This included language transfer, borrowing and avoidance. Language transfer has two facets: positive, where the features of the mother tongue are similar to those of the target language, (hence learning is facilitated), and negative, which is believed to be the cause of errors. Another more newly investigated type of transfer is called 'conceptual transfer' during which other non-linguistic features are transferred. It also includes the effects of language on thoughts and how learners' perception of the world is transferred.

Borrowing is the use of L1 features, usually lexical items, and it is this aspect that differentiates it from transfer, in the production of L2. Avoidance is simply the non-

occurrence of some linguistic features as a result of difficulty, ignorance or personal preference.

As mentioned above, the non-occurrence of a particular structure may result from, difficulty, ignorance or personal preference, but the phenomenon of non-occurrence being investigated in this study, however, is not the result of any of the above mentioned reasons.

## Chapter Three

### Research Methods

#### 3.0. Introduction

This chapter discusses the methods used for investigating the study aims mentioned in the introduction section. It also provides some information on the context and subjects of the study. In addition, comments on the pilot study and data collection process are included. Finally, as this study uses Arabic scripts, a transliteration system is used in order to represent the way the Arabic sentences and examples are pronounced. An explanation of this system is also provided in this chapter.

As mentioned in the introduction, this study is conducted in two stages. In the first stage, tense, aspect and voice ‘TAV’ in English, modern standard Arabic ‘MSA’ and Libyan dialects ‘LD’ are investigated and then compared and contrasted.

This stage is divided into two parts. The first part is on TAV in English and Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) and the second part is on one of the Libyan dialects, in particular, the Libyan Western part dialect used in Tripoli region. One particular town has been selected to represent this dialect Zintan town, and the reasons for choosing this town are mentioned in the introduction of Chapter Five about the (TAV) in LD. The dialect of this town is referred to as ZD.

The aim of this stage is finding answers to the following questions:

- 1- To what extent do these grammatical structures (TAV) exist in both modern standard Arabic and Libyan dialects?
- 2- How are these structures expressed in both modern standard Arabic and Libyan dialects?

- 3- How do these structures syntactically and morphologically differ among Libyan dialects?

The investigation of the TAV in modern standard Arabic is achieved through examining the published books on the literature. For the TAV in LD, due to the fact that there are relatively few studies that have been conducted on Libyan dialects, I have to recourse to publications written on other dialects such as Tunisian, Moroccan and Egyptian in addition to the few studies on LD. For investigating the TAV in Zintan town, two methods are used. The first is termed 'focus group' by which a list of sentences containing different tenses and forms of the (TAV) in standard Arabic, and the subjects of the study are interviewed and asked about how they would express these target structures in their everyday conversation, (sentences are attached in the appendixes). The second method is recording some casual conversations. Information and details of these methods are included within the discussion of the TAV in Chapter Five.

The second stage is carried out with English language learners in a Libyan university in Zintan town that represents the Tripoli regions. The aims of this stage are finding answers the following questions:

- 1- At what stage (of four stages) do students learn the target structures?
- 2- To what extent do these structures exist in the students' written production?
- 3- If there is an L1 influence, which language form 'MSA' or 'LD' affects the use of the English TAV? Of course, this question is the theme of this research.

This study utilises four methods for data collection besides reading and the investigating the written literature. Two of these methods are for investigating the TAV in LD and the other two are for the TAV as used by Libyan English learners.

The first two methods are focus group and conversation recordings, and the second are picture describing and story writing.

Details of the procedures followed for analysing these methods are mentioned in the introductions of Chapters Five and Six.

### **3.1. The Subjects and Context of the Study**

As this study is in two stages, this means there are two contexts and three types of participants. Firstly, I investigate the target structures, tense, aspects and voice (TAV) in Libyan language varieties through interviewing local people. The first context, therefore, is the social network through which I interviewed some people from Zintan town, and the second context is educational in that the subjects are college students. Three groups of subjects are involved, the subjects of the focus group, the subjects of the conversation recordings, and the subjects of the second stage 'students'. Details of each of these three groups are provided at the introductions of Chapters Five and Six.

The second stage of the study is conducted on students in Libyan universities. The English department from one university is chosen, the Faculty of Teachers in Zintan.

There are two reasons for choosing this university's faculty in this town. The first reason is for the reliability and validity of the study. That is, I avoided the main cities as they are likely to be more dialectally mixed as they are populated by people from other regions and thus they could be more dialectally mixed. The second reason is because, as mentioned earlier, I conducted the LD study in this town.

### **3.2. Ethical Considerations**

One of the ethical issues in educational research, as Cohen and Manion (1994) say, is the required balance between pursuing the truth and taking the subjects' rights and values into the researcher's consideration. In fact, there are many potential sources of ethical problems at any stage of the investigation. Such ethical problems could emerge from the topic investigated, the method used, the context of the study, the nature of the participants, and what is to be done with the data collected. Therefore, researchers are advised to proceed ethically at every stage and step of the investigation.

Cohen and Manion mention many principles of ethical research including informed consent, access and acceptance and confidentiality which are also considered during conducting this research.

Informed Consent is defined as, "*the procedures in which individuals whether to participate in an investigation after being informed of the facts that would be likely to influence their decision.*" (Cohen and Manion 1994:350)

This definition implies that the participants should be aware of the aims of the investigation before they are asked to take part in the study, and should be free to participate. Therefore, for ensuring the freedom and self-determination of the subjects, they are provided with a brief summary of the topic being investigated.

The second principle is gaining access and acceptance. That is being allowed to pursue the research in its context and obtaining permission from those in charge of such places.

These two main principles are taken into consideration. For the first principle, I informed the subjects in the focus group that their answers would be recorded. For the second principle, I was issued a letter from the authorities of the university investigated granting permission for carrying out the study. I was also issued an Ethical Review Approval from the University of Leeds.

### **3.3. Research Instruments**

Verma, et al (1981) say that the selection of the most suitable method or technique is the job of the researcher, though, he is not the sole chooser of the appropriate method. Both the subjects and the aim of the research are also effective factors in determining the method. In SLA, as Gabrys'-Baker (2008:68) says, the majority of the researchers used the grammaticality judgement technique (also known as acceptability judgement). Gass and Mackey (2007) say that this technique is common in linguistics by which learners are asked to judge the correctness of a list of sentences and provide corrections for those that are incorrect. However, Gass and Mackey highlight the weaknesses of the technique saying that it is criticized on the basis of what sort of knowledge is being tapped. For example, learners will say that a sentence such as (\* she go to college) is not possible, but they still utter sentences like this.

Individual tape-recorder interviews are considered to be the primary means of obtaining reliable data, according to Coupland and Jaworski (2009) and Gass and Mackey (2007). They say that interview provide the researcher with unscripted conversational data. Many researchers in sociolinguistics (Stanford 2008: Vol, 12, Laihonen 2008: Vol, 12, and Orinaghi 2010: Vol, 14) who used interviews for their



data collection, in particular, Hernandez (2009: Vol, 13) used it to collect data on language dialects.

Gass and Mackey (2007) also mention the importance of the observation method as a means of data elicitation in the sociolinguistics field. Observation in this context means observing and recording people's conversations.

Therefore, the nature of this study, which is investigating why, learners that know the TAV, do not use them, necessitated the researcher to choose the above mentioned methods used in the field of sociolinguistic, in particular, language dialects. These methods are 'focus group' and 'conversation recording'.

Two other methods used in this study, for the second stage, are picture describing and story writing. These picture describing and story writing are meant to complete each other. The structures that could not be elicited by using picture describing, are elicited by the story writing. These methods are designed by the researcher for the purpose of this particular study.

### **3.4. Data Collection Instruments**

Four methods are utilised for this study, two for the LD and two for the use of TAV by the Libyan students.

#### **3.4.1. Stage (I) Libyan Dielects**

The investigation of the TAV in modern standard Arabic is as stated above through drawing on the existing references, while investigating the TAV in the Libyan dialects, which are not properly documented in the literature, is conducted by using

two techniques besides the available written literature. To generate original data the techniques are: focus group, and casual conversation recordings.

#### **3.4.1.1. Focus Group**

Focus group methods are interviews between the interviewer and respondents to elicit certain information. They are effective survey methods for obtaining data as they are used to discover what is in people's mind, what they think and how they feel (Verma and Mallick 1999, Fraenkel and Wallen 1996, and Wiersma 1991).

Many researchers such as, (Cohen and Manion 1994, Thomas 2009, Wilkinson and Birmingham 2003, Cohen et al 2000, and Verma and Mallick 1999) divide interview into four types: structured, unstructured, non-directive and focus interview. In focus group interviews, questions are controlled by the research purpose but the sequence and wording are in the hands of the interviewer. So, it is characterised by being flexible and open for the researcher to modify. That is, they can flexibly change the wording of questions or add to them for probing deeper and for further clarifications. The type used in this study is the unstructured focus group interview.

The interview here consisted of a list of modern standard Arabic sentences on TAV and we discuss how these structures are expressed in the interviewee's dialect. The list of the sentences is mentioned in appendix (I).

The subjects of the method are 20 students in the fourth year at Zintan Faculty of Teachers. Their age average is between twenty two (22) and twenty three (23) years old. They are mixed, male and female from the same town. The interview took place in their classroom.

It is mentioned in the introduction of stage two that intensive courses on the English TAV structure had been given to the participants before conducting the main tests in order to ensure that they are fully aware of these structures and how they are used. I taught these courses, so, taking advantage of this, I was able to conduct the interviews. It should be mentioned that there is no particular reason for choosing fourth year. As the interview is interested in the use of TAV in their dialect, their English proficiency does not matter at this stage.

The procedures followed during the interview are that after explaining the purpose of this interview and gain their permission to conduct it, I read out one sentence at a time providing explanation if needed, and then discussed the way this sentence is expressed in the dialect. Because there was no time for me to write down any comments, I recorded the subjects' responses, and later on, these responses are transcribed and carefully analysed.

#### **3.4.1.2. Conversation Recordings**

The second technique used was to record casual conversations. These conversations are semi-controlled; for example, I guide the conversations towards the target structures by asking some questions to control the conversation.

The advantage of these conversations is that they provided real contexts in which the TAV occur.

These recordings of the conversation were taken over two sessions, each session lasting for about an hour. The participants of these two conversations were the same, i.e. the recordings took place at different times but with the same participants. There are six male participants in their late thirties and early forties. They have lived most of their lives in Zintan. Only one of them finished his tertiary education and worked

as a teacher, whilst the others are considered to be moderately educated. In order for the recordings to be as reliable as possible, the conversations are recorded without them knowing; yet, the ethical aspect is considered, therefore the people involved are informed of the recordings and the whole conversations recorded are replayed to them. They did not have any objections to these conversations being used for the purpose of the research.

Unlike the focus group where the recordings took place in the participants' classrooms, these recordings occurred through social network. The advantage of this is that the researcher is not an observer or a manager of the group; therefore, the group participants took part in the conversations without any feeling self-conscious. In other words, the participants in classrooms would regard the researcher as their teacher or more or less a stranger, therefore they would select their expressions and structures carefully which in turn would make the conversation more formal.

Besides these conversations, extracts from Facebook are also used. There is a facebook web page special for people from the targeted region (Zintan), and these people use their local dialect when chatting or writing. As a member of this group, I took advantage of this and copied the relevant comments. The advantage of this is that more people become involved and there is a wider range of topics discussed.

The findings of these two methods are referred to as 'Zintan Dialect' or occasionally written as ZD.

The mechanisms used for analysing these conversations and Facebook extracts are: first the recordings are transcribed and then the tenses and verbs are underlined and counted. These tenses and verbs are compared and contrasted with those of modern standard Arabic, i.e. how a certain sentence in the LD conversation is supposed to be

in the MSA. This step is needed in the comparison and contrast of the LD, MSA, as discussed in the following section.

These sentences and their equivalent tenses in modern standard Arabic are tabulated.

The following sentence from the conversation is used here to demonstrate this:

EXAMPLE (ZD)	EXAMPLE (MSA)	tense
مجموعة كبيرة رافعينها	مجموعة كبيرة اخدت	Passive
Majmū'a kabīrah rāf'īnha	Majmū'ātīn kabīrah ūkhīdāt	Simple past

**Table (1) Comparing and Contrasting the Tenses Used in the Conversation Recording to their Equivalents in both Modern Standard Arabic and English Languages**

However, more detail on the analysis of these methods is mentioned in Chapter Six.

### **3.4.2. Stage Two Libyan University Students**

For the second stage, university students, the first step is ensuring that the subjects know the target forms (TAV). This takes place by means of a test which contains some sentences in the active voice and sentences in which their verbs are in the wrong form. Students are required to change the first set into passive, and correct the verbs of the other set. This test is preceded by a one-month course in grammar, particularly on tense, aspect and passive, and it is taught by the researcher. This course, in fact, is for ensuring that the TAV system is fully understood.

The main purpose of this stage, investigating the TAV in the students' production, is conducted by means of two tests. One is picture describing and the other is story writing.

### **3.4.2.1 Picture Describing**

The first technique is picture describing. This is a completion of the story writing technique in that it focuses on the structures that can not be elicited by the story writing technique. In this picture, a man called John receives some services as he is renovating his house. He is the only person that is named in the picture and the other workers are unknown. This is to direct the participants towards using the passive tense. There are seven prompts provided in this test but only five structures are elicited.

### **3.4.2.2 Story Writing**

The second technique is story writing. It is an imaginary story created and modified to include as many structures of English TAV as possible, and is written in both modern standard Arabic MSA and Libyan dialects LD, attached in appendix IV. During the pilot study, the participants were asked to translate the story from Arabic to English, but it was revealed that some participants, especially the low proficient ones, literally translated the Arabic text. So, to minimise this, three steps are observed during conducting the main test. First, the story is presented to the participants in both modern standard Arabic and Libyan dialects to study and discuss. This helps the participant to remember and follow the sequence of the story. The written form of the story is then removed and a set of pictures describing it is provided instead. The third step is providing expressions and verbs in their base form ordered according to their occurrence in the story to maximise the use of the targeted sentences and structures, and to help the participants complete the task easily without wasting time checking on words which, in turn, would confuse them.

The advantage of this technique is that the subjects are directed towards using the target structures 'TAV', but the disadvantage could simply be that not all the structures are guaranteed to be used.

Because the aim of the study methods is to see to what extent students used TAV on their own, only instructions are provided but no examples.

The participants or the subjects at this stage are 12 students. Three from each class (three from the first year, three from the second and so on). The three from each class are chosen according to their proficiency level: one low, one middle and one high proficiency participant. Thus, there is a wide range of levels starting from first class low proficiency students to fourth class high proficiency students. The students' (participants') level is determined in terms of which academic year (class) they are in i.e. first, second, third or fourth year, and based on the activities of the students during the intensive course, in addition to information gained from their other teachers.

These participants are girls of ages ranging from nineteen (19) - 'those from first class' - to twenty-three (23) those from fourth class. As mentioned in the Libyan tertiary education section (1.2.), students major in English language at secondary level. They study there for three years before joining university. So, in terms of their English language study, the participants' backgrounds range from four to seven years.

### **3.5. Data Analysis**

The steps followed for the analysis of the data obtained from stage two is mentioned in the introductions of stage two.

The data obtained in the second stage is carefully and adequately examined to discover the frequency at which the TAV occurred in the participants' writing. This, in turn, is then compared and contrasted to the findings of the first stage.

Following this, in Chapter Six I compare and contrast the use of TAV in MSA, ZD, and English in order to find out the similarities and differences between the three languages, i.e. MSA, LD, and English.

### **3.6. The Pilot Study**

Gass and Mackey (2007) highlight the importance of the pilot testing saying that researchers should never assume that their data collection methods will always be successful. A pilot study is a small-scale trial of the methods to be used in the main study, and the purpose of conducting such a study is to uncover any problems and reveal subtle flaws and address them before conducting the main study.

#### **3.6.1. The Participants of the Pilot Study**

They were nine participants from Zintan town. Because this took place during the summer holidays, the universities were not open yet, and therefore I had to visit the participants at their homes. Two of them had recently graduated from the Faculty of Education, English Department, and three were new teachers. The rest were students at the Faculty of Education.

#### **3.6.2. Summary of the Pilot Study Findings**

The main purpose of the pilot study was to test the methods used for the study, and to become familiar with the procedures and contexts.



Generally speaking, the methods were useful and reliable in eliciting the target structure. I did not encounter any problems during the implementation of the methods and all the participants showed their willingness and interest in the questions asked.

There seemed to be a major problem with the translation method. It appeared that the participants tended to translate the Arabic story including the tenses and the grammatical structures. That is, they translated the Arabic sentence and its tense as it occurred in the Arabic text. So, another way of presenting this test is followed during conducting the main test, and it is changed from 'text translation' to 'story writing'.

### **3.7. Transliteration System**

Arabic scripts are used in this thesis, therefore, a set of signs and symbols are used to represent the pronunciation of the Arabic examples and sentences. There is a variety of transliteration systems used by different researchers and grammarians. In this thesis, the transliteration system used is called 'Leeds transliteration'. The table that explains how each Arabic sound is represented is mentioned at the beginning of the thesis. Below are some examples provided for further explanations.

For long vowels, some other symbols are used as illustrated below:

- /ā/ means long vowel /ا/ as in 'كان kāna'.
- /ī/ stands for long /ي/ as in 'سعيد sa'īd'.
- /ū/ represents long /و/ as in 'يكون yakūn'.

The hamza sound is represented by the sign /-/

The following are some examples of the use of these symbols.

- الطفل سعيد بالالعب Alṭifl sa'īdun bil al'ab.
- اللوحة مرسومة بالببرو al luḥa marsūma bilbīru
- الفطة تأكل الطعام al qīṭah ta-kūl aṭa'ām

## Chapter Four

### English Tense, Aspect and Voice

This chapter is devoted to the discussion of the structures and uses of TAV in English. This discussion focuses on the structure and meaning of TAV.

#### 4.1. The English Tenses

In the literature review, tense, aspect and voice are discussed from a theoretical point of view. Here I discuss when and how English tenses are used. In this discussion, only the common and usual uses of each tense will be discussed. Thus, only the basic use of each tense accompanied with an example will briefly be mentioned here. The basic use of the tenses discussed here is determined according to grammarians such as, Biber et al (2012) and Lewis (1986).

**1- Future perfect continuous.** This is used for actions that will last for a specified period of time at a definite moment in the future. That is, by a certain time in the future, an action will have been taking place for a period of time.

- Next year at this time, I will have been studying English for 12 years.

**2- Future perfect.** This tense is used for actions that will finish at a specific time in the future. The same example as with the future perfect continuous is used here.

- Next year at this time, I will have finished my study.

The difference between this and the previous tense is that this tense is concerned with the result whereas the former focuses on the duration of the action. In fact, this difference holds true for all perfect and perfect continuous tenses.

**3- Future continuous.** This talks about actions that will be in progress at a time in the future.

- Next year at this time, I will be doing my final exams.

The difference between this and future perfect continuous is that this tense focuses on the action itself, and not on the period of the occurrence of that action.

**4- Simple future.** This describes future actions in general.

- I will do my final exams next month.

There are some other tenses that can be used to express simple future such as the simple present and the present continuous. They are discussed in the tense concerned.

**5- Simple present.** This is used for facts, routines and habits that occur frequently or for a relatively long time.

- I study English every twice a week.

The simple present can also be used for future situations as when the action is certain to happen in the future or when the events or actions are time tabled.

- Winter starts in December. (certain future actions).
- The plane takes off at 8:00 AM tomorrow. (time tabled actions).

**6- Present continuous.** This is used for actions that are happening at the time of speech or temporary actions that last for a certain period of time.

- I am studying tenses now. (at the moment actions),
- I am doing a Ph-D these years. (temporary actions).

This tense can also be used for previously arranged future actions as in ‘I am not coming tomorrow’.

**7- Present perfect.** This tense is used for two past situations. The first is for past actions without a specific time ‘timeless past’, and the second situation is when the action has present effect.

- I have got an MA in TEFL. (timeless past)
- He has just arrived. (Present effect which is “he is here now”).

**8- Present perfect continuous.** As mentioned under the future perfect tense, the difference between perfect and perfect continuous is that this latter focuses on the action. So, the present perfect continuous tense talks about actions that have been going on from some time in the past up to the present time.

- I have been studying English for 11 years.

Here, it is not important whether or not I finished my study. The present perfect indicates that the action has finished

- I have studied English for 12 years.

**9- Simple past.** This describes actions that finished in the past.

- I graduated from an English department in 1995.

**10- Past continuous.** This is usually used for actions that are interrupted by other actions. That is, it describes the background to a past action.

- I was going home when the accident happened.

It is also used for actions that last for some time in the past or two actions occurring at the same time.

- She was reading in the foyer. (duration of time),
- I was chopping some meat and my friend was cooking. (simultaneous actions).

**11- Past perfect.** When an action occurs and finishes before another past action, the prior action is in the past perfect. In other words, when someone is talking about a past action and they want to mention something which happened before that action, they use this tense.

- The soldiers had evacuated the camp minutes before it was bombed.'

**12- Past perfect continuous.** This describes the actions that had been in progress, or how long they had been in progress at a certain period in the past.

- The baby had been crying when we came in.
- I had been walking for an hour when my mate met me.

#### **4. 2. Aspect**

With regard to time reference, grammarians like Comrie (1976), Binnick (1991), Conner (1968) and Yule (1998) distinguish three notions: time, tense, and aspect.

They distinguish time from tense in that time is an element of reality whereas tense is purely grammatical. Lewis (1986) states that time is naturally divided into past, present and future. The past is before now, the present is now and the future is after now. More precisely, Comrie (1976) divides time according to the moment of speaking suggesting that the present is located simultaneously with the moment of

speaking, the past is prior to this moment and the future is the subsequent situation. The present is only a boundary between the past and the future.

Tense, is a linguistic term that represents these three time divisions, (Lewis 1986). Tense, according to Lewis, is represented morphologically by changing the verb form. Thus English has only two tenses, present and past. Any verb form that is made using auxiliaries is not a tense, it is an aspect. In terms of the use of auxiliaries, Binnick (1991) regards tense and aspect as the same when he says that tense is marked either morphologically by verb form variations or syntactically by an auxiliary word. Both tense and aspect are concerned with time but in different ways, (Comrie 1976).

However, aspect is basically distinguished from tense in that it is usually formed with the help of an auxiliary. Aspect is typically distinguished from tense and many authors have discussed it thoroughly from a semantic point of view. Comrie (1976) classifies time reference into two. One is called 'absolute tense' and refers to the relationship between the time of the situation and the present moment (the time of the utterance), and the second is referred to as relative tense. This relates the time of the situation to another situation. For instance, the non-finite constructions of English involve relative not absolute tense. These non-finite constructions are called aspects. The action of writing in the following sentence occurs simultaneously with action of making. The time begin of the verb "writing" is indicated by this main verb "make".

(1a)- When **writing** on the board, he **makes** mistakes.

(1b)- When **writing** on the board, he **made** mistakes.

Comrie explains his conception of the relationship between time, tense and aspect saying that:

Tense is a deictic category, i.e. locates situation in time usually with reference to the present moment, though also with reference to other situations. Aspect is not concerned with relating time of the situation to any other time-point, but rather with the internal temporal constituency of one situation; one could state the difference between situation-internal time (aspect) and situation-external time (tense).  
(5)

The following sentence illustrates this statement:

(2)- The builder fixed the roof yesterday; and while he was fixing it, the plumber came.

The two different forms of the verb “fix” in the two clauses refer to the same situation. “Fixed” in the first clause refers to a completed action whereas “fixing” in the second clause is zoomed in and the speaker is in the middle of the situation during which the arrival of the plumber occurs. Similarly, Binnick (1991) distinguishes tense from aspect by saying that the former views the situation from outside as a completed whole, and that the latter views the situation from inside as an on-going, incomplete action.

This view of situations, complete or incomplete, has been discussed in terms of perfectivity and imperfectivity. Perfectivity indicates that a situation is viewed as a single whole reducing the situation to a single point. Perfectivity indicates a completed action and it lacks reference to the internal temporal constituency of a situation, (Comrie 1976). Imperfectivity, on the other hand, refers to the internal temporal structure of a situation. It is divided into two: habitual and continuous. The former describes a situation extending over a period of time and no longer existing. This may be achieved by using “used to” as in: “Alice used to study hard”. The latter,



continuous, is also divided into two, progressive that describes on-going situations, and non-progressive including perfect forms.

The perfect is defined in terms of “continuing relevance of a previous situation” (Comrie 1976: 56). For Comrie, perfect is different from aspect in that this latter is concerned with the internal temporal constituency of a situation whereas the perfect tells us nothing about the situation itself. As has been mentioned, perfect relates some state to a preceding situation. For this characteristic, some grammarians do not tend to consider it part of aspect at all.

In this study, all types of perfect tenses are considered under aspect for two reasons: first, recalling that aspect views the internal meaning of a situation, perfect continuous structures have the same perspective as in, I have been writing. The second reason stems from the grammatical point of view. As Conner (1968) and Lewis (1986) say, there are only two tenses in English and any tense that is formed with the help of an auxiliary is not a tense. Yule (1998) also argues that aspect is grammatically marked by two forms of the verb, /be/ and /have/.

Besides tense, the following are examples of the perfect structures that are targeted in this study:

1- Future Perfect

A- Simple: I will have finished by the end of this month.

B- Continuous: She will have been studying for ten hours by midnight.

2- Present Perfect

A- Simple: He has gone.

B- Continuous: They have been running.

3- Past Perfect

A- Simple: He had gone.

B- Continuous: They had been running.

#### **4. 3. Voice**

Voice in this context refers to the use of active and passive sentences. Active and passive are rough paraphrases of each other, (Parker and Riley 2000). Klaiman (1991) claims that the active is so termed because the action it describes devolves from the dynamic and active part ‘the agent’, and passive comes from the fact that the action devolves from the non-dynamic and static participant in the construction ‘the patient’.

Parrott (2000) mentions five situations where the passive is preferred.

- 1- The passive is used when the action is central. A new train station has been opened.
- 2- It is used when the agent – the doer – is not known or not specified. No one was injured.
- 3- It is used to avoid long subjects as in: Many people have been refused by the new committee which was set up to control the flow of migrants to this country.
- 4- It is used to thematise processes rather than doers or agents. The letters are first classified according to their destination, and then they are stamped.
- 5- The passive is used to avoid personal involvement or responsibility. The window was broken.

The passive differs from the active in the word order and the pragmatic function of the agent and recipient (Siewierska 1984). The subject in a declarative active sentence is the agent while it is the recipient in its passive counterpart.

The passive is formed with /be/ or /get/ followed by the past participle form of a verb. In forming the continuous passive, two forms of verb to /be/ are used. The object of the active sentence becomes the subject. The following examples illustrate this, (A means active and /P/ means passive:

- 1- The teacher explained the rule. (A) The rule was explained. (P)
- 2- The plumber is fixing the kitchen tap. (A) The kitchen tap is being fixed.

The agent could be mentioned with the help of the preposition /by/ as in:

The rule was explained by the teacher. The kitchen tap is being fixed by the plumber.

Parrott (2000) says that the verb /get/ is used instead of /be/ when the result is unexpected.

- 3- He got knocked over when crossing the road.

Sometimes the two verbs are used interchangeably as in: 'I will not get /be tricked'.

However /get/ is not used in desired situations: I will be granted a scholarship. \* I will get granted a scholarship.

Parrott (2000) observes two types of passive constructions, standard constructions and causative constructions; and Siewierska (1984) mentions two other types, personal and impersonal constructions. The personal passive is the same as the standard passive, so, three types of passives will be discussed: personal, impersonal, and causative passives.

The personal passive is the normal passive and its structure has overt subject with semantic context. This subject is the patient in the corresponding active sentence which is always available for this type (Siewierska1984). The impersonal passive, on the other hand, is used when the corresponding active sentence does not have an object i.e. intransitive verb. Structures of this type usually begin with, ‘it is believed’, ‘it is said’, ‘it is thought’ etc.

4- She left. (A)                      She is believed to be gone. (P)

5- He is genius. (A)                  He is thought to be genius. (P)

In the third type, the causative passive, as Parrott (2000) terms it, the object is the recipient of the action not the subject as in normal or standard passive. The subject in the causative construction is responsible for the action, but not the doer for example, ‘He got me sacked’. There are three common causative verbs: ‘get’, ‘have’, and ‘make’.

6- I had my hair cut.

7- She was made to stand for an hour.

This type is used in (a) when we arrange for someone to do something, example (7), and (b) when expressing unfortunate experiences, for example ‘The boy got his arm broken’.

There is a third category that is neither active nor passive. This category is known as the ‘middle voice’, (Klaiman1991:4). The middle voice displays some characteristics of both the active and passive voice. It is in the middle because the subject of their construction cannot be determined as an agent or patient. Rather it may have elements of both of them. In middle constructions, the viewpoint is active as the

action devolves from an agent-like part (the subject), and the same part also has patient-like characteristics. For instance, the verb 'packed' in, "The books packed", is syntactically active but semantically passive. Some other examples of middle constructions are:

8- The window broke.

9- This book reads well.

#### **4.4. Conclusion**

This chapter has discussed the English TAV highlighting the form and use of the TAV structures. In terms of tenses, three notions have been discussed: time, tense, and aspect.

Time is distinguish from tense in that time is an element of reality whereas tense is purely is a linguistic term that represents three time divisions.

Comrie (1976) divides time according to the moment of speaking suggesting that the present is located simultaneously with the moment of speaking, the past is prior to this moment and the future is the subsequent situation. The present is only a boundary between the past and the future.

Two time references have been classified. One is called 'absolute tense' and refers to the relationship between the time of the situation and the present moment (the time of the utterance), and the second is referred to as relative tense. This relates the time of the situation to another situation.

With regard of the passive, five situations where the passive is preferred is pin pointed: when the action is central, when the agent – the doer – is not known, when

avoiding long subjects, when avoiding personal involvement or responsibility, and when thematising processes rather than doers or agents.

A third category that is neither active nor passive has also been mentioned. This category is known as the 'middle voice'. It displays some characteristics of both the active and passive voice. It is in the middle because the subject of their construction cannot be determined as an agent or patient.

## **Chapter Five**

### **The Arabic Tense, Aspect and Voice**

Unlike the tenses of the English language, Arabic tenses are basically three: past, present and imperative, and these three tenses are mainly expressed by the verb, Alsamerrai (2003), Abduhamid (1980), Mobarak (1992), and Hassan (1995). Therefore, it could be restated that the Arabic verb can be: past, present or imperative. However, Thatcher (1922), Alhawary (2011) and Haywood and Nahmad (1965) say that there are two tenses in the Arabic language, the perfect (past) and the imperfect (present). The former means that the action is completed either now or long ago and the latter refers to incomplete actions. The imperative, according to Haywood and Nahmad (1965) is a modification of the imperfect (present) verb form.

In the following paragraphs, three tenses are discussed mentioning their meaning and use. The three tenses are: the past, the present and the future. The future is dealt with as a tense in this study. The imperative is also discussed but it is not considered as a separate tense because it is modification of the present as mentioned above by Haywood and Nahmad (1965). In fact, Buckley (2004) and Rydin (2005) classify the imperative within the mood categories.

Before this, and as has been mentioned above that the tenses are expressed by the verb, some details on the verb forms are highlighted. These forms and verb formation play a role in inflecting verbs to express different tenses, especially in passivation as mentioned later on in the section that follows.

## 5.1. The Arabic verb

Sitrak (1986) and Hassan (1995) say that the verb is a word that expresses an action and its tense. For example (درس darasa – studied) gives some information about the action ‘studying’ and the tense of the action which is ‘past’. The present tense of this verb or ‘action’ is expressed by prefixing one of the imperfect letters (ي ya) (يدرس yadrus) means ‘to study’. Morphologically, this verb (درس darasa) has three radicals while the verb (دحرج dahraja – to roll) has four radicals. The former is called trilateral verb and the latter is quadrilateral verb. Also, both (كتب kataba – to write) and (نام nāma – to sleep) are trilateral verbs but the verb (كتب kataba) can have an object (مفعول به) whereas the verb (نام nāma) cannot. The former is called a transitive verb and the latter is an intransitive verb. This is illustrated in the following sentences:

- احمد كتب الدرس - Aḥmed kataba aldarsa. Ahmed wrote the lesson.
- نام احمد - nāma Aḥmed. Ahmed slept.

Thus, the Arabic verb can be classified from three points of view, first, syntactically into لازم متعدي transitive and لازم متعدي intransitive, secondly, morphologically into trilateral and quadrilateral, and finally grammatically into past, present and imperative. As the focus of this chapter is on tense, aspect and voice of the Arabic language, transitivity and verb forms are introduced here in brief as prerequisites for verb tenses. Some other words that can also help in determining the tense are introduced. These are: اسم الفاعل (ism alfa’il) and اسم المفعول (ism almaf’ūl), also termed ‘active and passive participles’. There are some other verbs and prepositions that play a role in pinpointing Arabic tenses, particularly aspect, such as (كان kāna), (قد qad) and (لما lamma), but these are mentioned within the discussion of tense and aspect.



### 5.1.1 Transitivity

Simply, an intransitive verb cannot have an object while a transitive does, (Abduhamid 1980, Mobarak 1992 Hassan 1995, and Thatcher 1922). For example (جلس jalasa – to sit) and (ذهب dhahaba – to go) are intransitive verbs, but verbs like: (كسر kasara – to break), (فتح fataḥa – to open) and (لبس labisa – to wear) are transitive. Some verbs can have two objects. These are called ditransitive or doubly transitive verbs, and some others can have three objects, though there are only seven of these verbs, they are referred to as tritransitive verbs, Alsamerrai (2003) and Hassan (1995).

For example: ditransitive verb:

- اعطيت محمدا كتابا a'ṭaytu Moḥamadan kitāban. I gave a book to Mohamed.

Tritransitive verb:

- اعلمت القائد العدو قادما a'lamtu alqa-id al'adu qadimun. I told the leader that the enemy is coming.

However, Hārūn (1988) and Mobarak (1992) mention that transitivity or intransitivity is not a permanent character of verbs as a transitive verb can be changed into intransitive and vice versa. A transitive verb can be intransitive when it is in (انفعل infā'al) form, 'the verb forms are discussed below'.

- كسر علي الباب kasara Ali albāb. Ali broke the door. The verb (كسر kasara) is a transitive verb and its object is (الباب albāb).
- انكسر الباب inkasara albāb. The door broke. The verb (انكسر inkasara) is now intransitive.

mention three cases where an intransitive verb becomes transitive, (Hārūn 1988, Mobarak 1992, and Thatcher 1922). First, when it is prefixed with ‘hamza’ as is the intransitive verb (جلس jalasa – to sit). It becomes transitive when it is hamzated:

- أجلست الولد على المقعد ajlastu alwalada ‘ala almiq’ad. I sat the child on the chair.

In fact, this hamza does not only change the intransitive into transitive, but it also makes the transitive ditransitive and the ditransitive tritransitive. The following examples explain this:

- لبس سالم الحذاء labisa Salem alḥidha. Salem wore the shoes.

In this sentence, the verb (لبس labisa – to wear) is transitive verb and the word (الحذاء alḥidha) is its object. When this verb is hamzated, a second object is needed:

- ألبست الام سالم الحذاء Albasat al aum Salim alḥidha. The mother made Salem wear his shoes.

Here, Salim is a direct object and (alḥidha – shoes) is the indirect object. That is, the verb (ألبس alabasa) is now ditransitive.

The second case where the verb becomes transitive is when it is in the form of (فعل) as in:

- فرح الطفل fariḥa alṭiflu. The child became happy. (intransitive).
- فرّحت الطفل farraḥtu alṭifla. I made the child happy. (transitive)
- بلغت القمة balaghtu alqimah. I reached the top. (transitive)
- بلّغت التلاميذ الامتحان قريبا ballaghtu atalāmidh alimtiḥan qariban. I told the students that the exam is about to. (ditransitive).

The third case is when the verb is followed by the preposition (بـ bi-) as in:

- اتى فصل الصيف Ata faşlu alşayf. The summer came / has come. (intransitive)
- اتى بشئ في يده ata bisha-in fi yadih. He came with something in his hand. (transitive).

### 5.1.2 Verb Forms

Abduhamid (1980) says that (التصريف Altaşrif) which means ‘conjugation’ is a linguistic field that is interested in the word structure of the Arabic language in terms of their form and structure. This field is only applicable to some nouns and verbs that are formed with three letters or more unless some letters are omitted. Such these verbs are called ‘the biliteral’ verbs. However, Buckley (2004) argues that the derived forms and their numbering are done by non-Arabic grammarians. Thus, this discussion of verb forms is mainly quoted from non-Arabic grammarians.

According to Haywood and (Nahmad 1965, Sitrak 1986, and Ryding 2005), there are two major groups of Arabic verbs: triliteral and quadriliteral and these groups have subgroups. In fact, there seems to be two different points of view concerning the groups and subgroups. Buckley (2004) says that there are four types of Arabic verbs: strong, doubled, hamzated, and weak verbs. He says that the strong verbs can be either triliteral or quadriliteral. That is, these two types of verb ‘triliteral and quadriliteral’ are a subgroup of strong verbs, whereas Ryding (2005) claims that the strong, doubled, hamzated, and weak verbs are subgroups of the two major groups, triliteral and quadriliteral. Regardless of this, and as mentioned in the introduction of this section that ‘transitivity’ and ‘verb forms’ play a role in Arabic tenses, these types of the verb are briefly discussed below without considering which is the major and which is the subgroup.

### 5.1.2.1 Triliteral Verbs

Wright (1896), Thatcher (1922), Haywood and Nahmad (1965) and Ryding (2005) mention that the triliteral verb is that verb with three radicals. It is the simplest and most common form. The third person singular, masculine perfect verb is used as a paradigm in dictionaries, Buckley (2004). The triliteral verb in this form is called (المجرد Almujarad) which means ‘the stripped’ from which other verbs can be derived. The derived verbs are called (المزيد Almazīd) meaning ‘the increased’ and formed by adding letters before or between the three radicals.

Haywood and Nahmad (1965) claim that the number of derived forms is open to dispute, but it could be fourteen, and this view is also claimed by Wright (1896), including the rare and the very uncommon forms; however, Buckley (2004) and Ryding (2005) highlight ten forms range from (I), the root form, to (X). All these forms are summarised in the following table:

No.	Form	Pattern	Examples
1	I	فَعَلَ	قسم فتح درس فهم كسر قتل علم
2	II	فَعَّلَ	قسّم فتحّ درّس فهمّ كسّر قتلّ علمّ
3	III	فَاعَلَ	ساعد قابل غادر راقب قاتل ناقش
4	IV	أَفْعَلَ	أرجع أبدع أعلم أخبر أجبر أنزل أجلس
5	V	تَفَعَّلَ	تقدّم تمرّد تصرّف تبدّل تنقّس تفرّق
6	VI	تفاعل	تظاهر تبادل تعامل تقاتل تصالح
7	VII	انفعل	انكسر انهزم انسحب اندفع انصرف
8	VIII	افتعل	اعتذر اخترع احترم اشترك انتظر
9	IX	إِفْعَلَ	إحمرّ إسودّ إبيضّ
10	X	استفعل	استخدم استفسر استقبل استبدل استنتج

**Table (2a) Triliteral Verb Forms**

Besides the changing of the verb from intransitive to transitive and vice versa as mentioned in (5.1.1 Transitivity), semantically, the derived form of a verb sometimes adds to the meaning of its root and sometimes bears a different meaning. For example, the verb form (I) (قطع qaṭa'a) simply means ‘to cut’. When it is derived into

verb form (II) (قَطَعَ qatṭa'a), its meaning is now 'to cut into pieces'. That is, the meaning becomes strengthened. But, a verb like (علم 'alima), which means 'to know', changes its meaning when derived to verb form (II), (عَلَّمَ 'allama), which means to teach, and also gives a third meaning when further derived into (IV) (اعلم a'alm) meaning 'to inform', though these three different verbs somehow have a common connotation as they all centre around gaining or giving information. Sometimes, the verb forms bear the reflexive or passive meaning for each other. For example the forms (V, VII, and VIII) have the reflexive or passive meaning of form (I) as (تفرق tafaraqa), (انكسر inkasara) and (اجتمع ijتماعa). The form (VI) has the reflexive meaning of form (III) as (صافح şafaḥa – تصافح taşafaḥa), and the form (X) could be reflexive form of (IV) such as (اسلم as aslma – استسلم istaslam). Some other verbs are very rare and uncommon or restricted to a certain area when derived such as the form (IX) which is mainly for colours, Thatcher (1922), and Buckley (2004).

### 5.1.2.2 Quadriliteral Verbs

Quadriliteral verbs consist of four radicals. According to Haywood and Nahmad (1965) Ryding (2005) Thatcher (1922), and Buckley (2004), there are only four forms of them. These are summarised in the following table:

No.	Form	Pattern	Examples
1	I	فَعَّلَ	ترجم هرول دحرج هيمن
2	II	تَفَعَّلَ	تغطرس تسلسل تدهور تلعم
3	III	فَاعَلَ	Extremely rare
4	IV	أَفَعَّلَ	اطمان

**Table (2b) Quadriliteral Verb Forms**

Wright (1896) and Ryding (2005) mention that quadriliteral verbs are formed in three ways: First, from the biliteral (a biliteral verb is a verb which has two radicals

only. It is also termed a ‘doubled’ verb, mentioned below). Ryding (2005) terms this way of formation ‘reduplicated’ in which the first two letters are repeated. These two letters usually express sound or movement as (زعزع zalzala – زلزل waswasa – وسوس) (za’za’a). The second way is combining elements from more than one root as (بسمل basmala – حمدل ḥamdala) from saying (الحمد لله – بسم الله). The third way is borrowing from another language as (تلفن talfana).

Buckley (2004) says that only form (II) of the quadrilateral verbs is used much and the form (III) is extremely rare. The form (II) corresponds to the form (V) of the trilateral verbs and it, and the form (IV), has the meaning of reflexive or passive. It can also be derived from some other nouns such as from the noun (زندیق zindīq) becomes (تزندق tazandaqa).

Based on the existence of the so called (حروف العلة ḥurūf al’illah), which are: (أ alif - و wāw - ي yā), and the existence of ‘hamza’, the verbs are also classified into: strong verbs doubled, hamzated, and weak verbs, (Alsamerrai 2003, Abduhamid 1980, and Hārūn 1988). In the following paragraphs, these verb types are briefly discussed mentioning their structure and their derived forms as well.

1- **Strong verb (الفعل الصحيح)**. It is the one that does not contain (و wāw), (ي yā) or (همزة hamza). A great majority of the example words used in the discussion of the trilateral and quadrilateral verbs are strong verbs. Yet, the following are some examples of the strong verbs quoted from both the trilateral and quadrilateral verbs mentioned above: ذهب dhahab – سلم sallama - تبدل tabadal - استنتج istantaja - تغطرس taghaṭrasa.

2- **Doubled verbs (الفعل المضاعف)**. These are the verbs that have two identical radicals mainly the second and the third such as the following examples: مرّ marra – رددت rad-

dtu – جفاف jafaf. It is clear in the first example that the second radical is written with shadda, and in the second example, the second radical (د) is written double while in the last example, a long vowel separates the repeated radical (ل). This is because when the doubled radical is not followed by a vowel or not separated by a long vowel, it is written as one with shadda, Buckley (2004).

3- **Hamzated verbs** (الفعل المهموز). Simply, they are the verbs with hamza either as an initial (أخذ), middle (سأل) or final (قراء).

4- **Weak verbs** (الفعل المعتل). They have the vowel letters (ا alif), (و wāw) or (ى ya). The position of these two letters is similar to that of hamza, that is, they can come at the beginning, in the middle or at the end of the verb. The verb has a special term according to the position and the number of weak radicals in a verb. When the weak radical is the initial, the verb is termed as ‘assimilated – الفعل المثال’ such as: وصل waṣala – to come and يبس yabisa – to dry. Those with weak middle radicals such as (قال qala – to say, and باع ba’a - to sell) are called hollow verbs (الفعل الاجوف). Defective verbs (الفعل الناقص) are said to be those with final weak radicals as in: لقي laqi – to meet, and رمى rami – to throw away.

Sometimes, two or three radicals in one verb are weak. Doubly weak (الفعل اللفيف) is when there are two weak radicals as in (شاء sha-a - willing), and very limited verbs have three weak radicals such as (أوى awi). These are called treble verbs. Ryding (2005) and Buckley (2004)

## 5. 2. Tense

Thatcher (1922), and Haywood and Nahmad (1965) mention that the Arabic language is poor in tense saying that there are only two tenses, the perfect (the past)

and the imperfect (the present). As mentioned in the introduction, the tenses in Arabic are in most cases expressed by the verb. Arabic grammarians like: Alsamerrai (2003), Abduhamid (1980), Mobarak (1992), Hassan (1995) and Hārūn (1988), divide the Arabic verb into three, past, present, and imperative. In this study, the terms ‘past’ and ‘present’ are mostly used instead of ‘perfect’ and ‘imperfect’. This is to avoid ambiguity and confusion when aspect is explained and when the tenses are compared to those of the English language in the following chapters.

### 5.2.1 The past

Basically, the past verb expresses past actions whether these actions are close to the present or happened long ago such as: حضر صديقي ḥaḍara ṣadiqi ‘My friend came’ (or), my friend has come, and ذهب الرجل بلا رجعة dhahaba alrajulū bila raj’ah. The man went forever, (or) the man has gone forever. Abduhamid (1980), and Hassan (1995) say that every verb has a distinctive feature. The markers or the distinctive features of the past are that the (ت ta), that indicates the doer and the one that marks the feminine, can be suffixed to it as in:

- قال qāla he said                      - قلت qult I said                      - قالت qālat she said.

If a word indicates an action but it does not accept either of these (ت ta), it is said to be an active participle such as: هيهات hayhāt means ‘far away to happen/to be. The other feature of the past verb is that the future particles (س sa) and (سوف sawfa) can never be attached to it, قال qāla \* - سقال saqāla \* سوف sawfa qāla.



However, Hassan (1995) and Alsamerrai (2003) report that there are four cases of the past. First, the verb is morphologically and semantically past. That is, it is in the past form and it is used to indicate past actions whether these actions took place in the near or far past, and this use is the most common for the past.

Secondly, the verb is morphologically past but not semantically. The verb is in the past form, but it could be used for present actions. For example, in what they call ‘contract’ terms, the verb is in the past but it is used to indicate present situations such as (بعت bi’t, اشتريت ishtarayt and هبت hibt) means (sold, bought and gave).

Thirdly, the past verb form could be used for future actions especially in some religious expressions such as in supplications: (ساعدك الله sa’adaka Allah) or (بارك الله فيك Baraka Allahu fika) meaning (May Allah help you and May Allah bless you).

The past can also be used for future actions to show that these actions are sure to happen. Besides this, the particles: (ان inna, اذا idha,) as well as (لا la - when used with oath particle) convert the meaning of the past verb into future.

- ونفخ في الصور wa nufikha fi alṣūr. “And the trumpet shall be blown” (Ya Sin, verse 51) ( emphasised future event)
- ان عدتم عدنا in ‘utum ‘udna. “But if you return to your previous state, We too will” (Al-Israh, verse 8)
- اذا جاء الرجل idha ja-a alrajulū. If the man came.
- والله لا كلمتك بعدها wallahi la kalamtuka ba’daha. By my God, I will not talk to you after that.

The fourth case is when the verb is morphologically past but semantically could refer to the past, present or future as in:

- سواء عليك قمت ام قعدت sawa-un ‘alika qumta am qa’ita. Whether you stand up or sit down.
- هلا ساعدت المحتاج hal la sa’ata almuḥtaj. Will you help the poor?

### 5.2.2. The present

Morphologically, the present tense verb is just like the past tense in that it has some distinctive feature. The difference between the present and the past with regard to these distinctive features is that, in the past tense, the distinctive features, the two (ت ta), are usually suffixed to it as mentioned above, whereas in the present the distinctive features are mostly prefixed. The most common feature is the (ي ya), (يكتب yaktub – to write) and (يلعب yal’ab – to play). This (ي ya) is used for the third person masculine, singular or plural. For the first person (ا a) is used and (ت ta) is used for third person feminine. Examples:

اكتب aktub = I write/am writing. يكتب yaktub = he writes/is writing.  
 تكتب taktub = she writes/is writing يكتبون yaktbūn = They write/writing.

Another distinctive feature is the (س sa) which can be prefixed to it, or the particle (سوف sawfa) which precedes the present tense verb only. Also, the negative particle (لم lam) can be used with the present verb form such as: لم يكتب lam yaktub, but not \*لم كتب lam kataba’. Benmamoun (2000) adds another feature that distinguishes the present from the past. He says that while the present verb form can be prefixed or/and suffixed, the past tense is exclusively suffixal. That is, the agreement, gender

and number are only suffixed to the past verb. The verb (كتب kataba) is used below to explain this:

- كتب	كتبت	كتبتِ	كتبتم	كتبنا
Kataba	katabt	katabti	katabtum	katabna

The present verb can be either prefixed or suffixed as in the following examples:

- يكتب	تكتب	تكتبان	يكتبون
Yaktub	taktub	taktban	yaktbūn

Moreover, only the present tense verb can be in indicative, subjunctive or jussive moods, Ryding (2005). Each of these moods has a special meaning; for example, the indicative mood has the meaning of factual statements while the subjunctive mood expresses doubt, desire or wish. The jussive mood when used for imperative indicates an attitude of command. However, these moods occur under specific circumstances and sometimes they are determined by some particles such as subjunctivising (لن lan) which changes the tense into future as in:

- يعمل احمد في المعمل ya'mal Aḥmed fi alma'mal. Ahmed works/is working at the laboratory.
- لن يعمل احمد في المعمل lan ya'mal Aḥmed fi alma'mal. Ahmed will not work at the laboratory.

The jussive mood does not carry any particular semantic content and it is only used in Arabic writing under specific circumstances. Therefore, as this study is mainly about tenses, it does not focus on the details of these moods; rather, it focuses on the verb and particles that may accompany it and affects its tense, Ryding (2005).

There seems to be a different point of view between non-Arab grammarians such as: Buckley (2004), Ryding (2005), and Haywood and Nahmad (1965), and the Arab grammarians such as: Alsamerrai (2003), Hassan (1995), and Mobarak (1992) concerning the use of Arabic present tense. The former state that the present tense expresses incomplete actions which means that it is used for actions that started in the past and are continuous through the present to the future. The latter state that it expresses present or future actions unless a time phrase or the context fixes it to either present or the future. This means that it could be used to express either present or future actions. Yet, both views agree on that it is used for the present and the future as well as the past in some certain structures.

Thus, and according to Hassan (1995), the present tense verb can be used for situations: first, it is used for the present or the future, and this is considered to be its common use. If there is no particle, word, or phrase attributing it to either present or future, its tense is mostly present. That is, it tends to express the present. For instance, the meaning of the sentence ' يعمل احمد في المعمل ' ya'mal Aḥmed fi alma'mal could mean now or tomorrow. Ahmed works/will/work/is working in the laboratory' is generally about the present time. If the verb is one of the ( افعال المقاربة ), such as ( يكاد yakadu), it is closer to the future as in: يكاد يصل الطبيب yakadu yaṣal alṭabīb. The doctor is about to come. Secondly, it is used for the present only in three cases. A- When one of the time expressions such as ( الان al-ān – الساعة alsa'ah) is used:

يعمل احمد في المعمل الان ya'mal Aḥmed fi alma'mal al-ān. Ahmed is working at the laboratory now.

B- When the verb is used with one of ( افعال الشروع ) such as ( شرع shara'a) as in: شرع

عمله احمد في عمله shara'a Aḥmed fi 'amalih. Ahmed started/has started his work.

C- When the verb is negated by (ليس laysa) as in:

ليس اخوك حاضرا laysa akhuka ḥaḍran. Your brother is not present.

Thirdly, it is used for the future only in three cases: A- If the verb is preceded by (سوف sawfa) or prefixed with (سـ sa) as in: سيعمل احمد في المعمل saya'mal Aḥmed fi alma'mal. B- In some conditional clauses as (لو law) as in:

- لو تعطني كل ما عندك لا اكلمك law ta'tini kula ma 'andak la aukalimuk. I will not talk to you even if you give me all what you have.

C- When used with the subjunctivising particle (لن lan) as in:

لن يعمل احمد في المعمل lan ya'mal Aḥmed fi alma'mal. Ahmed will not work at the laboratory.

Fourth, it is used for the past. This happens when it is preceded by (لم lam, and لما lama) as in:

لم يعمل احمد في المعمل lam ya'mal Aḥmed fi alma'mal. Ahmed did not work in the laboratory.

### 5.2.3 Imperative

According to Rev and Thatcher (1922), and Haywood and Nahmad (1965), there are two aspects of the Arabic verb: perfect (past) and imperfect (present). The imperative is a modification of the imperfect (present). That is, the imperative is somehow not considered to be a tense. In addition, Alsamerrai (2003) claims that the meaning of the imperative is only for requesting something to happen in the future.

Also, as this study is about the various meanings and uses of tenses, the imperative is briefly mentioned here.

In terms of its form, the imperative verb is formed by deleting the subject marker prefix (ya) or the (ta or tu) from the present verb form in the jussive mood, Ryding (2005). She conditions the use of the imperative prefix or ‘the helping vowel’ to the pronunciation of the imperative formed. She mentions that if the stem, after removing the (ta) or/and (tu), starts with consonant – vowel sequence, it is left as it is because it is easily pronounceable. For example: تفسر tufassir. When the prefix (tu) is removed, the remaining stem is فسر fassir which is pronounceable, therefore, it remains as it is without any prefixing. If the remaining verb stem starts with a consonant cluster, it needs a ‘helping vowel’ prefix because the Arabic verbs do not start with a consonant cluster or a vowel sound. For example, يكتب yaktub, becomes \*كتب ktub which starts with a consonant cluster. Therefore, this stem breaks the phonological rule which is why a helping vowel is used for forming the imperative, so the resulting verb is, اكتب u-ktub. In order to avoid initial vowels, a hamza is used at the beginning. Also, this helping vowel depends on the verb form. In short, while the forms (I, IV, VII, VIII, and X) need helping vowels, the forms (II, III, V, and VI) do not need them. Also, the verb type i.e. whether the verb is doubled, hamzated, hollow, assimilated or defective, affects the formation of the imperative.

The following two tables summarise all this:

Form	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X
Jussive	فتح	كسّر	ساعد	أنزل	تقدّم	تعامل	انصرف	احترم	-	استخدم
Imperative	إفتح	كسّر	ساعد	أنزل	تقدّم	تعامل	انصرف	احترم	-	استخدم

**Table (3a) the Formation of the Imperative According to Verb Forms**

Type	Doubled	Hamzated	Assimilated	Hollow	Defective
Jussive	مر	أخذ سأل قراء	وقف	قال	دعى
Imperative	مر	خذ إسأل (سأل) إقرأ	قف	قل	دع

**Table (3b) the Formation of the Imperative According to Verb Type**

When the hamza is the initial radical in hamzated verbs, it is dropped to avoid double hamzas. When it is the middle radical, the imperative could be regular i.e. the helping vowel is added, or this middle hamza is dropped as is the case with (سأل) shown in the table. The verb with final hamza is also regular. The verb (قال), is somehow subject dependent. For example, when it is for feminine or plural third person, the middle radical could be changed into long (wāw) as in: قولوا qūli قولي qūlu.

Alsamerrai (2003) adds that the imperative could also be formed by prefixing (لا la) as in: ليجلس الجميع liyajlis aljamī’.

In terms of meaning, it is mainly used for future actions only. Alsamerrai (2003) mentions three situations where the imperative is used:

- 1- For commands – اغلق الباب ighliq albāb. Close the door.
- 2- For supplications – ربي اغفر لي Rabi ighfr li. Lord, forgive me.
- 3- For advice and instructions – اغلق الابواب ..... في حالة الحريق استعمال الدرج, اغلق الابواب ..... . In case of fire, use the stairs, close the doors ....

#### 5.2.4 The future

As mentioned in this section that the Arabic tense is divided into two, past, present including the imperative, the future time is expressed by one of these tenses by means of some time phrases that indicate future, or with the help of some particles and prefixes such as (لن lan) and (س sa, or سوف sawfa). The following paragraph sheds some light on these tenses when used for future time. Firstly, one of the most straight forward future time reference is the present tense when prefixed with (س sa) or preceded by (سوف sawfa). Alsamerrai (2003) distinguishes between (س sa, and سوف sawfa) saying that (س sa) is used for near future actions while (سوف sawfa) is for far future actions. He explains this mentioning that the (س sa) prefix is a contracted form of (سوف sawfa) and that the contracted forms expresses near actions. He used the following example to explain this.

- wa yaqūl alinsan a -idha ma mutu lasawfa ukhraju ḥayan. “And says man, What! When I am dead, shall I be brought forth alive?” (Maryam verse 66).

In the verse, the particle (لسوف) is used because he/she thinks that the resurrection is very far away. This view is also supported by Abdel-Hafiz (2006 –: P 72) who says that: “... Arabs use the particle *sawfa* plus the imperfect indicative form of the verb in order to express remote future. But the particle *sa-* plus the imperfect indicative form of the verb is used to express near future time”.

The second future time reference is the present tense itself. As mentioned in the present tense section that it can be used for present or future actions, especially if the verb is one of the (الفعال المقاربة), such as (يكاد yakadu), Hassan (1995). For example:

- ينتخب الشعب رئيسهم الاسبوع القادم yantakhib alsha'ab ra-isahum alisbu' alqadim.



- يكاد الماء يغلي yakadu alma yaghli.

In fact, in the present tense section, two other situations where the present tense is used for future are also mentioned. They are just restated in the following examples:

1- When the conditional particle (لو law) is used:

- لو تعطني كل ما عندك لا اكلمك law ta'ṭini kula ma 'andak la aukalimuk. I will not talk to you even if you give me all what you have.

2- When the subjunctive particle (لن lan) is used as in:

لن يعمل احمد في المعمل lan ya'mal Aḥmed fi alma'mal. Ahmed will not work at the laboratory.

Not only the present verb tense can be used for expressing future time, but also the past tense verb. Such use has been mentioned in the past tense discussion above, and also quoted here.

One of the uses of the past verb for future time is when one of these particles: (ان inna, اذا idha,) and (لا la) is used with an oath particle.

- ان عدتم عدنا in 'utum 'udna. "But if you return to your previous state, We too will" (Al-Israh, verse 8)
- اذا جاء الرجل idha ja'a alrajulū. If the man came.
- والله لا كلمتك بعدها wallahi la kalamtuka ba'daha. By my God, I will not talk to you after that.

In the following situations where (سواء sawaun) and (هالا hal la), the tense is future:

- سواء عليك قمت ام قعدت- sawaun 'alika qumta am qa'ita. Whether you stand up or sit down.

- هلا ساعدت المحتاج hal la sa'ata almuhtaj. Will you help the poor?

In summary, most of the Arab grammarians do not talk about the future as a separate tense, rather, they include it within the present tense, and as has been previously mentioned, it could be expressed by some other tenses. However, in this study, the future tense is deemed as a separate tense with its special markers (س sa) and (سوف sawfa). In short, سيفعل sayaf'al and سوف يفعل sawfa yaf'al, is future tense.

### 5.3. Aspect

As mentioned in section 3.1.2, the aspect is distinguished from tense according to the time reference. It has also been discussed that Comrie (1976) classifies time reference into two, absolute tense which refers to the relationship between the time of the situation and the present moment (the time of the utterance), and the relative tense that relates the time of the situation to another situation. This latter is said to be aspects.

Although the Arab grammarians do not talk about Arabic aspect at all, they imply it when they talk about tenses. For example, Sitrak (1986) and Alsamerrai (2003) explain that the verb (كان kāna) can be used with another present verb form for two different situations, giving a background of a past action (the same as that of the English past continuous) and talking about habitual past. Based on this, and full discussion of the aspect in section 3.1.2, the English aspect section – such this combination of (كان kāna) and present verb form is considered to be an aspect as the structure resulting expresses a past action in relation to another past action.

The discussion of the Arabic aspect here is not based on the three tenses ‘past, present and future, that is, it does not talk about past continuous or present perfect just like those of the English language, rather, it is based on two important words or particles that play a major role in forming of such Arabic aspect. These are the verb (كان kāna) and the particle (قد qad). These can be used with different tenses and can be combined together to form different aspects.

The verb (كان kāna) belongs to a group called (كان و اخواتها kāna wa akhawatiha – Kāna and its sisters). Apart from the fact that (Kāna) and its sisters express the tense but not the action, they do not seem to have the same semantic meanings as (كان kāna) does. For example, (اصبح aṣḥaḥ) is one of the sisters of Kāna, it has a completely different meaning from that of Kana. This section focuses on this verb (كان kāna) but not its sisters. This is because it can be used as an auxiliary to form the aspect as has been mentioned above.

The verb (كان kāna) can be used as an auxiliary and be combined with other verbs and particles to form different ‘tenses references’ i.e. aspects, (Alsamerrai 2003, Rev and Thatcher 1922, Ryding 2005, and Buckley 2004). Thus, in this section, (كان kāna) is dealt with as an auxiliary and the accompanying verb is considered as the main verb. The following is an explanation of such use of (كان kāna) illustrated by some examples:

1- General past tense. This is its normal meaning as in: كان عمر عادلاً kāna ‘umar ‘adilān. Means – Omar was justic. If the main verb is a past verb, it could mean that the action occurred once only. The following pair of examples clarifies the difference in meaning between (كان kāna) as used with an active participle and a past form:

- كان محمد كاتباً kāna Moḥamed katiban. Mohamed used to be a writer.
- كان محمد كتب في هذا الامر kāna Moḥamed kataba fi hadha almawdu'. Mohamed wrote on this issue.

The first example means that Mohamed used to be a writer, that is, habitual past, but the second one means that Mohamed wrote about the issue. The writing happened only once, and does not necessarily mean that he is/was a writer.

2- The habitual or continuous past. When (كان kāna) is used with a present verb form, the resulted structure could mean habitual past or it could express an action was going on at a time. This use is equivalent to the English past continuous.

- كان يقوم الليل kāna yaqūm alayl. He used to pray during the night. (habitual past)
- كان يقرأ عندما وصلت kāna yaqr- 'indama waṣaltu. He was reading when I arrived (past continuous).

When used for continuous actions, (كان kāna) can be followed by a verb in the present tense form as in the example mentioned above or by an active participle. (كان kāna) with an active participle could express continuous actions or states up to the present time. This is explained below, but before that a brief introduction of the active participle mentioned.

The active participles are substantive in that they are inflected like nouns (for definiteness, gender or number) and that they perform the function of nouns, adjective, adverbs or verbs, (Abduhamid 1980, Mobarak 1992, Hassan 1995, Ryding 2005, and Hārūn 1988). Morphologically, they are usually similar to the verb form (III), but they do not accept the verb prefixes such as the (تـ ta) of the doer or the

feminine (ت ta). The following examples explain these two features of the active participle: جالس jālasa with quite long vowel (ā) is a verb in form (III) that means ‘to sit with’ as in: جالس سالم اصدقائه بكرم jālasa Salem aṣḍiqā-uḥu bikaram. Salem sat with his friends kindly. But, جالس jālis is an active participle means s/he is/was sitting: سالم جالس على الكرسي Salem jālis ‘ala alkursi. Salem is sitting on the chair. The difference between the verbs and the active participles is that the latter cannot be suffixed with the (ت ta) of the doer for example, i.e. جالست صديقاتها jālast ṣadiqātuha, but not \* هي جالست على الكرسي hiya jālisat ‘ala alkursi. The following are some examples of (كان kāna) with active participle:

- كنت ذاهب الى العمل kuntu dhahiban ila al’amal. I was going to work.
- كانت مخلصه مع الجميع kānat mukhliṣatan ma’a aljami’. She was honest with all of them.

Depending on the context, these two examples could mean that the act of going ‘الذهاب’ is still going on or was going on at a time in the past. In other words, they have the meaning of either the English past continuous or present perfect.

The auxiliary (كان kāna) can also be used to express present and even future actions as in:

ان الصلاة كانت على المؤمنين كتابا موقوتا ina alṣalāta kānat ‘ala almu-mnīn kitāban

mayqūta. “Indeed, prayer has been decreed upon the believers a decree of specified times” (Al-Nisa, verse 103) (Present action)

كان شره مستطيرا kāna sharuhu mustaṭīra. “and fear a Day whose evil will be

widespread” ( Al-Insan, verse, 7). (Future event).

As is the case with the use of the past verb for future events to emphasise the occurrence of the action, explained in the past verb form use above, this later use also falls under the emphasise purposes.

The future markers (س sa) and (سوف sawfa) can also be used with the auxiliary (kāna to express future events. The difference between (سيكون sayakūn) and (سوف يكون sawfa yakūn) is that the latter can be negated while the former cannot, although Alsamerrai (2003) says that (سوف sawfa) is an emphasising particle while (لن lan) is a negation particle, therefore they cannot be used in a sentence.

- سيكون الامر صعبا sayakūn al-amr ṣaʿban. It will be difficult.
- سوف لن يكون الامر سهلا sawfa lan yakūn al-amr sahlān. It will not be easy.
- لن سيكون الامر صعبا \* lan sayakūn al-amr ṣaʿban. It will not be difficult.

For continuous aspect, only participles can follow the auxiliary 'سيكون sayakūn' because the particles (س/سوف sa/sawfa) are for future therefore cannot be followed by a present verb, as in:

- عندها سيكون الولد نائما 'indaha sayakūn alwalad nā-īman. That time, the boy will be sleeping. (participle)
- عندها سيكون الولد ينام \* 'indaha sayakūn alwalad yanām. That time, the boy will be sleeping. (present verb)

The second particle that is used to form an aspect is (قد qad). Hārūn (1988) mentions that this particle can be followed by a verb only. Rev and Thatcher (1922), Buckley (2004) and Hassan (1995) say that (قد qad) has three meanings: emphasising the occurrence of an action, the occurrence of an expected action and finally making a

past action close to the present. This last meaning is the focus of this discussion. (قد qad) precedes an affirmative past verb to make it close to the present.

- قد قامت الصلاة qad qamat alṣalat. The prayer has started.
- قد مات الرجل qad māta alrajulū. The man has died.

When the sentence is negative, (لم lam) or (ما ma) are usually used.

- لم يموت الرجل lam yamut alrajulū. The man did not die.
- لم قد مات الرجل\* lam qad māta alrajulū. The man has not died.

The particle (قد qad) also indicates a past action that occurred before another past action as in:

- دخلت و قد نام الناس dakhaltū wa qad nāma alnasu. I came in when everyone had slept.

This means that the particle (قد qad) can make the verb far past or near past according to the context. Haywood and Nahmad (1965) and Sitrak (1986) have also drawn such a conclusion. They said that (قد qad) makes the verb definitely past perfect or it may make it 'present perfect' as that of the English language.

The verb (كان kāna) and the particle (قد qad) can be used together to form further aspects. Wright (1896) and Buckley (2004) assert that 'when one of two or more pluperfect is an interior to the rest in point of time, it is indicated by means of the particle (قد qad) and the verb (كان kāna)'. Sitrak (1986) adds that this combination of (قد qad) and (كان kāna, in the imperfect 'present form') can be used for different aspects in the future. All these past, present and future aspects formed by (قد qad) and (كان kāna) are shown in the following examples:

- سيكون صديقي قد درس الانجليزية العام القادم sayakūn ṣadiqi qad darasa alanqliziyah al'ām alqadim. My friend will have studied English next year.
- عندما حضر الى الفصل كان قد كتب الواجب 'ndamā ḥadara ila alfaṣl **kāna qad** kataba alwajib. When he came to the class, he had written his homework.

The two 'markers' of the future aspect can be separated by the subject as shown in the first example, and the future prefix (سـ sa) can be omitted without affecting the tense or the meaning:

- يكون صديقي قد درس الانجليزية العام القادم yakūn ṣadiqi qad darasa alanqliziyah al'ām alqadim. My friend will have studied English next year.

Also, the particle (قد qad) of the past aspect can precede the two verbs as in:

- وقد كانت انذرت ان تعتقه wa qad kānat andhart an ta'tiqahu. She had promised that she would set him free, Wright (1896).

#### 5.4. Voice

As is the case with Arabic tenses which are mostly expressed by verb, the Arabic passive is also expressed by the verb by means of some phonological changes, Alsamerrai (2003), Haywood and Nahmad (1965), Ryding (2005) and Buckley (2004). Yet, before discussing the passive formation, the situations where the passive is used are introduced first. Mohamed (2006) and Abdulghani (2012), mentioned many uses of the passive. These can be summarised in the following points:

1- For avoiding personal involvement. This is particularly performed in some academic essays or formal speeches where the writer/speaker tends to avoid using the pronoun (انا ana) 'I'. For example:



- اقْتَرَحَتْ بعض الحلول لهذه المشكلة uqtūriḥat ba'ḍ alḥlūl li hadhih almushkilah.

Some resolutions for the problem have been suggested.

Instead of saying:

- انا اقترحت بعض الحلول لهذه المشكلة ana iqtaraḥtu ba'ḍ alḥlūl li hadhih almushkilah.

I have suggested some resolutions for the problem.

2- When the agent is not known. This simply means that the person performing the action is not known to the writer/speaker.

- كُسِرَ الزجاج kusira alzuḡaj. The glass was broken.

3- When the agent is known to the hearers/readers. This particular use is found in Quran verses and religious preaches. For example:

- خُلِقَ الانسان ضعيفاً Khuliqa alinsan ḍa'ifan. Mankind was created weak". (Al-Nisa, verse 28). It is well-known that Allah (God) created man.

4- When the action is more important than the doer, or when emphasising and ensuring that the action is done. In fact, this depends on the context or/and the writer/speaker's intention. The first sentence below is an active sentence which means that it is Khalid who broke the window but not Ahmed or Anis, while the second sentence is passive. It simply means that the window is broken i.e. the action or event is existent but it is not important who did it.

- كسر خالد النافذة kasara Khalid alnafidah. Khalid broke the window.
- كُسِرَت النافذة Kusirat alnafidah. The window was broken.

Alsamerrai (2003) adds to such use the situations where there are two objects. He uses the following example to explain this:

- أُعطيَ محمد ديناراً u'tiya Moḥamed dinaran. Mohamed was given a dinar.
- أُعطيَ ديناراً محمداً u'tiya dinaran Moḥamed. A dinar was given to Mohamed.

In the first sentence, the focus is on Mohamed but in the second sentence, the focus is on the 'dinar', i.e. how much has been given to Mohamed.

Unlike the English language where the agent can be mentioned in passive sentences by the preposition 'by', the passive in the Arabic language is not normally used when the agent is mentioned. However, Haywood and Nahmad (1965) say that in Modern Standard Arabic (MSA), this rule can be broken especially in journalism. The agent is introduced to the passive structure by means of some phrases such as (من قبل mn qibal) and (على يد 'ala yad).

Grammatically, it is clear that only transitive verbs (4.2.2) can be in the passive. For example, the intransitive verb 'جلس محمد jalasa Moḥamed' cannot be passive. Syntactically, not only the verb changes its vowel system, but also the sentence changes its structure in that the object of the verb becomes the subject which is called (نائب الفاعل na-ib alfa'il) meaning 'the deputy or representative of the doer. The following are examples of the syntactic structure of the passive as compared to the active structure.

- كسر منير النافذة kasara Munir alnafidah. Munir broke the window.  
(Active)
- كُسِرَت النافذة kusirat alnafidah. The window was broken.  
(passive)

So, the noun (النافذة alnafidah = the window) is the object in the first sentence but it is (نائب الفاعل na-ib alfa'il) in the second. The change of the word positions has nothing

to do with the meaning of the passive, but this change depends on whether or not the sentence is a verbal or a nominal sentence. The example above is a verbal sentence and the one below is the same but is a nominal sentence. In this example, the object structurally takes the position of the subject but is semantically the same:

- منير كسر النافذة                      Munir kasara    alnafidah.                      Munir broke the window.  
(Active)
- النافذة كُسرَت                              Alnafidah kusirat .                      The window was broken.  
(passive)

#### **5.4.1 Arabic Passive Verb Formation**

Based on the formation of the passive verbs, Ryding (2005) distinguishes two types of passive, inflectional and derivational passive. The former is formed by means of the shift of vowel patterns of the active verbs and it is also known as apophonic passive. The latter is formed by means of derivational processes.

##### **5.4.1.1 Inflectional Passive**

Haywood and Nahmad (1965), Buckley (2004) and Ryding (2005) posit it that ‘damma’ and ‘kasra’ are the vowels that are mostly used for forming the passive irrespective of the varied vowels of the active verb. The ‘damma’ is a small diacritic put above the inflected radical or letter and it is pronounced /u/. The ‘kasra’ is a small diacritic put beneath the inflected radical or letter and it is pronounced /i/. For example: the letter or the sound (ك k -), when marked by the damma or kasra becomes (كُ ku) and (كِ ki).

In fact, there is a third vowel ‘diacritic’ that is used for forming the passive. This is called fatha which is also a small diacritic put above the inflected radical or letter and pronounced as /a/: كَ ka. This vowel is commonly used for the present passive. Haywood and Nahmad (1965) emphasise the rule of the damma saying that it draws the reader’s attention to the fact that the verb is passive. Yet, it is now common that these vowels are not written in MSA, but the readers pronounce them because the passive can also be inferred from the syntax of the structure or/and the context. The following table summarises the vowelling system according to the verb formations, i.e. trilateral and quadrilateral verbs and verb types:

No.	Form	Active	Example	Passive	Examples
1	I	فَعَلَ	قَتَلَ	فُعِلَ	قُتِلَ
2	II	فَعَلَ	عَلَّمَ	فُعِلَ	عُلِّمَ
3	III	فَاعَلَ	قَاتَلَ	فُوِعِلَ	قُتِلَ
4	IV	أَفْعَلَ	أَجْبَرَ	أَفْعِلَ	أُجْبِرَ
5	V	تَفَعَّلَ	تَقَدَّمَ	none	none
6	VI	تَفَاعَلَ	تَظَاهَرَ	rare	rare
7	VII	انْفَعَلَ	انْهَزَمَ	انْفُعِلَ	none
8	VIII	اِفْتَعَلَ	اسْتَمَعَ	اِفْتُعِلَ	اسْتُمِعَ
9	IX	اِفْعَلَ	إِحْمَرَ	none	none
10	X	اسْتَفْعَلَ	اسْتَبَدَلَ	اسْتُفْعِلَ	اسْتُبْدِلَ

**Table ( 4a ) The Passive of the Trilateral Verb**

No.	Form	pattern			Examples
1	I	فَعَّلَلَ	هَيَمَنَ	فُعِّلِلَ	هُيِمِنَ
2	II	تَفَعَّلَلَ	rare	تَفُعِّلِلَ	rare
3	III	فَاعَّلَلَ	rare	فُوُعِّلِلَ	rare
4	IV	أَفْعَّلَلَ	اطْمَأَنَّ	أَفُعِّلِلَ	أُطْمَأِنَ

**Table ( 4b ) The Passive of Quadrilateral Verbs**

Thus, as shown in these two tables, the vowelling system of the past passive verbs is the same for both the trilateral and the quadrilateral verbs in that the first radical is damma /u/ and the one before the last is kasra /i/.

The passive of the present verb is similar to that of the past with regard to the damma on the first radical, but in the present verb, fatha is used instead of the kasra of the past verb. This is the case for both trilateral and quadrilateral verbs. This is illustrated below:

- قد يُقتل المرء على الهوية Qad yuqtal ilmaru ‘ala alhawiyah. A man may be killed based on his identity. (The passive of a present trilateral verb).
- العديد من الكتب تُرجمت الى العربية al’adid mn alkitab turjimat ila al’arabiyah. Many books have been translated into Arabic language. (The passive of a present quadrilateral verb).

Some of the other types of the verbs ‘doubled, hamzated, assimilated, hollow and defective’ have different characteristics when changed into passive.

Type	Double d	Hamzated	Assimilated	Hollow	Defective
Active	عد ‘d	قرأ qara-a سأل sa-ala أخذ akhadha	وضع wad’a	قال qala	دعى da’a
Passive past	عُدَّ ‘uda	قُرِئَ quri-a سُئِلَ su-ila أُخِذَ ukhidha	وُضِعَ udi’a	قِيلَ qiila	دُعِيَ du’iya
Passive present	يُعَدُّ yu’ad	يُقْرَأُ yuqa- يُسْأَلُ yus-al يُؤْخَذُ yu-khadh	يُوضَعُ yuda’	يُقَالُ yuqal	يُدْعَى yud’a

**Table (4c) the Passive of the non-strong Verb Types**

As shown in the table above, besides the change of the vowelling system, there are also some morphological changes of some verbs. For example, in the past middle hamzated verb, the middle letter or ‘vowel’ (a) is deleted but the hamza remains, that is, the (a) becomes (i), but for the present passive the verbs remain the same and only the vowelling system changes. This also applies to the present hollow verb where the middle long vowel, which changes to long /i/ in the past passive, remains

the same in the present passive. This addition is similar to the initially hamzated verb (يُؤخذ yu-khadh).

In the passive of the present verb (يَضَع yaḍa'), the letter (و wāw) is pronounced as a long vowel /u/ and added after the present prefix (يـ ya). There are no morphological changes in the doubled, initial and final hamzated, assimilated and defective past verbs; however, the last vowel of this defective verb becomes (يـ ya).

When the verb is followed by a prepositional phrase, it is not usually inflected for number or gender. It remains in the third masculine singular. Such use of this passive is termed 'impersonal passive', Buckley (2004):

- عُثِرَ عَلَى الْمَفْقُودِ - 'uthira 'ala almafqūd. The missed has been found. (Third masculine singular)

- عُثِرَ عَلَى الْمَفْقُودَةِ - 'uthira 'ala almafqūdah. The missed has been found. (Third feminine singular)

- عُثِرَ عَلَى الْمَفْقُودِينَ - 'uthira 'ala almafqūdīn. The missed have been found. (Plural)

#### 5.4.1.2 Derivational Passive

As shown in table (3a), some of the derived verbs have passive or reflexive meanings. These verb forms are: (V, VII) and sometimes the form (IX) of the triliteral verbs, and the verb form (II) of the quadriliteral verbs, Ryding (2005).

Examples of these passive verb forms are put in sentences for further clarifications:

- Verb form (V) تَحَطَّمَتِ الطَّائِرَةُ - تَفَعَّلَ taḥaṭṭamat alṭa-irah. The plane crashed.
- Verb form (VII) انْكَسَرَ الْبَابُ - اِنْفَعَلَ inkasara albāb. The door broke.

- Verb form (IX) اِحْمَرَّ - إِحْمَرَّ Iḥmar wajhuh. He blushed.
- Verb form (II – quadriliteral) تَدَاهَرَا الْوَضْعُ تَدَاهَرَا tadahwara alwaḍʻ.

The situation got worse.

Alsamerrai (2003) explains the difference between the derivational and inflectional passive, particularly the verb forms (فُعِلَ fu'il) and (انْفَعِلَ infa'al). He mentions that the passive form (فُعِلَ fu'il) means that the action is external while in the passive form (انْفَعِلَ infa'al) the action seems to be internal.

و إِذَا الْبِحَارُ فُجِرَتْ wa idha albiḥār fuġirat. “And when the seas are erupted.” (Al-infiṭār verse, 3). The event of the explosion is external, that is, something made them explode or someone exploded them.

إِذْرِبْ بِعَصَاكَ الْحِجْرَ فَانْفَجَرَتْ مِنْهُ اثْنَا عَشَرَ عَيْنًا idrib bi ‘aşaka alḥajr fa infajarat minhu ithnata ‘ashr ‘aynan. "Strike with your staff the stone." And there gushed forth from it twelve springs,” (Al-Baqarah verse, 60). Here the explosion is internal, that is, the rocks exploded by themselves.

Alsamerrai goes on to say that while some other Semitic languages use the verb form (انْفَعِلَ infa'al), the Arabic language tends to use the form (فُعِلَ fu'il).

Besides this, the passive participle (اسم المفعول) is also used in passive constructions. Ameen (2012) and Ryding (2005) say that the passive participle is a descriptive term that describes the object of the action. In terms of function, the passive participle can be used as a noun, or an adjective as in:

- أَحْضِرَ الْمَشْرُوبَ auḥḍira almashrūb. The drinks have been brought. (Noun)
- السَّيَّارَةُ الْمَسْرُوقَةُ alsayarah almasrūqah. The stolen car. (Adjective).

In the following example, the passive participle bears the meaning of passive:

- السيارة مسروقة Alsayarah masrūqah. The car is stolen.

Morphologically, the passive participle can be in one of three forms: ‘مُفَاعِلٌ mufa’al’ as مُقَاتِلٌ - مُضَارِبٌ , in the form of ‘مَفْعُولٌ maf’ul’ such as مَضْرُوبٌ - مَقْصُودٌ , or in the form of ‘فَاعِلٌ fa’iil’ such as (جَرِيحٌ - قَتِيلٌ). However, it is the second form ‘مَفْعُولٌ maf’ul’ that typically has the passive meaning.

However, there seems to be a different structure that is used instead of the passive especially in MSA. This structure uses the verb (تَمَّ tamma). Buckley (2004) mentions that this verb (تَمَّ tamma), which means ‘to be achieved or to take place’, is sometimes used with a verbal noun to paraphrase the passive constructions. For example:

- فُحِصَ العَرَضُ fuḥiṣ al’arḍ. The proposal was examined. (passive)
- تَمَّ فَحْصَ العَرَضِ tamma faḥṣ al’arḍ. Literally translates to (the examination of the proposal took place/achieved. However, its translation is normally similar to that of the passive structure.

## 5.5 Summary

This chapter has discussed Arabic verbs and tenses mentioning the relationships between the verb and the tense. The Arabic tenses which are only three, past, present and imperative, are mainly expressed by the verb. Therefore, a big portion of this section is devoted to the verb forms and tenses. First, the verbs are syntactically divided into two: transitive and intransitive verbs. The former can have an object while the latter does not. Under this topic, it is mentioned that some of the transitive



verbs can have more than one object. When such verbs have two objects, they are called ditransitive or doubly transitive verbs, while the verbs with three objects, only seven of them, are referred to as tritransitive verbs. Moreover, a transitive verb can be intransitive when it is in (انفعل infa'al) form and the intransitive verb can be transitive. This occurs in three cases: first, when it is prefixed with 'hamza', secondly when it is in the form of (فعل), and thirdly is when the verb is followed by the preposition (ـَ bi-).

The verbs are then divided according to their morphology, that is, the verb forms. In terms of verb form, there are two verb categories, trilateral and quadrilateral verbs. The trilateral verbs basically consist of three letters or radicals, of which there are ten forms. The quadrilateral verbs consist of four and there are only four forms. Besides this, the verbs are also divided into: strong verbs doubled, hamzated, and weak verbs. Some of these are further subdivided such as the hamzated verbs in which the hamza can be initial, middle or final. The weak verbs are also divided into: assimilated in which the weak radical is initial, hollow with the weak radical in the middle, and finally defective in which the weak radical comes at the end.

The main focus of this chapter is on Arabic tense and aspect. Three tenses have been discussed, past, present, and imperative. The future tense 'time' is also dealt with although it is not distinguished as a separate tense by Arabic grammarians. It is mentioned that each tense, i.e. the past and present, can be used for actions and situations which occur in different tenses. In other words, the past, for example, can be used for present situations mainly in what so-called 'contract terms' or even future events particularly in some religious expressions such as in supplications or to show that these actions are sure to happen. On the other hand, the present tense can be used to express future actions besides present situations. In fact, three cases make

the present verb form used for the present only. First when one of the time expressions such as (الآن al-ān – الساعة alsa'ah) are used. Secondly, when the present verb is used with one of (افعال الشروع), and finally, when the verb is negated by (ليس laysa). The present is used for the future also in three cases: A- when preceded by (سوف sawfa) or prefixed with (سـ sa), B- when used in some conditional clauses such as (لو law), and C- When used with the particle (لن lan) The present verb is also used for the past. This happens when it is preceded by (لم lam, and لما lama).

As far as the aspect is concerned, it is not distinguished by grammarians as a separate topic in Arabic tenses; yet, some of these grammarians such as Alsamerrai (2003), Hassan (1995), Alhawary (2011), Ryding (2005) and Buckley (2004), have implicitly indicated the Arabic aspect. They mentioned two important words used to form the aspect. These are the verb (كان kāna) and the particle (قد qad). The verb (كان kāna) can be used for:

1- General past.      2- Habitual past.      3- Continuous past.

The particle (قد qad) can be used for: 1- making a past action close to the present 2- indicating that a past action that happened before another past action.

This particle (قد qad) can be combined with the verb (كان kāna) to form further aspects such as in: كان قد ذهب kāna qad dhahaba which means in English 'he had gone', and سيكون قد اكمل مهمته sayakūn qad akmala muhimatuh, means 'he will have finished his mission, that equals the English future perfect.

For the passive, the last part of this section dealt with the voice of the Arabic language. It is similar to Arabic tenses in that the Arabic passive is also expressed by the verb by means of some phonological changes. Two types of passive are

mentioned, inflectional and derivational passive. Simply, the inflectional passive is formed by means of some phonological changes of the verb. Three common vowels are used, damma, kasra and fahta. The damma and the kasra are mainly used for past passive and the damma and the fatha are used for present passive. The derivational passive is formed by some verb forms. Some derived forms have reflexive or passive meaning such as the forms: (V, VII) and sometimes the form (IX) of the triliteral verbs, and the verb form (II) of the quadriliteral verbs. It is also mentioned that the Arabic language tends to use the inflectional more than the derivational passive.

Finally, this section of the passive concluded that the passive is sometimes paraphrased by using the verb (تم tamma).

## **Chapter Six**

### **TAV in Libya Dialects**

This chapter deals with the dialects of Libyan Arabic particularly that of the Western part of Libya's 'Zintan town'. The reason for choosing this particular town to represent the Libyan dialects is due to two facts. First, the informants of the main part of the study, the use and acquisition of the English TAV by the Libyan learners of English, are from this town which is my home town. This, in turn, makes it easier for me to conduct the (LD) tests that need an establishment of rapport with the informants. Second, I am from this town which means that I can also be an informant. In fact, some researchers have depended on themselves as a main source of data when studying dialects. For example, a very similar study was conducted on Libyan Arabic entitled "Tense and Aspect in English of Arabic Speaking Students" is by Ageli (1989) who gained most, if not all, of his data from being an LA speaker himself. He says "... in my description of the LA, I will depend on my introspection". Eisle (1999) who studied tense and aspect in Cairene Arabic also says that the initial source for his data is based on his own experience.

As mentioned in the introduction of this thesis, the purpose of this study is to investigate the extent to which the concept of TAV of MSA or of LD affects the use and/or the acquisition of the English TAV, therefore the study of the Libyan dialect aims at highlighting the use of TAV in this town. In particular, this study aims at investigating whether the concepts of TAV exist in the Zintan Libyan dialect, and to what extent this existence/non-existence affects the use of the English TAV by the students writing in English. This means that the aim here is to see whether or not a

particular structure exists in Zintan dialect regardless of its subtle syntactic and morphological details.

The main procedure followed in this study is reading and surveying written literature on Arabic dialects in general, that is, it includes studies of Arabic dialects from different Arabic countries especially those close to the targeted town such as, Tunisia, Morocco as well as the few studies on Libyan dialects. In terms of TAV, according to Ageli (1989), and Ahmed (2008), very few studies have included Libyan Arabic dialects. There is no study on TAV of the Libyan dialects used in the targeted town (Zintan). Because of all this, the reading and surveying of Arabic dialects is compared and contrasted to the particular study made on this particular town (Zintan). This particular study is conducted in two forms: focus group and conversation recordings as mentioned in the research methods section and in the introduction of the Conversation Recording section.

The first technique used for obtaining data is focus group. The purpose of this method is to gain data on the existence of TAV in Libyan dialects. More precisely, what the equivalent of the modern standard Arabic TAV in Libyan dialects are, and how a tense, aspect or passive structure is expressed when one of these structures does not exist in this dialect.

This method of data collection involves twelve sentences written in modern standard Arabic, which the participants are asked to say in their local dialects. The twelve sentences are meant to express a variety of grammatical structure. The participants' responses are recorded, transcribed and then compared and contrasted to see the grammatical similarities or differences between the MSA and the LD.

This technique of translation is also used by Mitchell (1952) who studied active participle in Cyrenaica. He mentioned that “Examples are given throughout in Arabic script and follow the method used by my informant for writing his dialect” (P 11).

The group discussion took place inside classrooms for many reasons. First, it saves time in that it would take a long time to select subjects, persuade them to participate and explain the purpose of the study to them. Second, for the validity of the research, the participant of this part should be around the same age as that of the university students. This is because dialects are more dynamic and changeable than standard language. Holmes (1995), for example, says that younger people tend to use new words and innovative forms while older people tend to be conservative and continue to use the words that they learnt in their teenage years. For these reasons, I prefer to investigate the dialects of the students themselves.

The second technique is conversation recording. The focus group technique is meant to determine the existence/non-existence of the tenses, aspect and voice in (LD), but conversation recordings aim to reveal the extent to which a certain tense is used in (LD). For example, the present perfect tense is expressed in (LD) with the word (كيف kif), as in: كيف روح احمد Kif rawaḥ Aḥmed. According to the discussion of tense in the previous chapter, the perfect (the past) is used for the present perfect instead of the simple past. This means that some tenses are used alternatively or that some tenses are limited to certain situations. In other terms, these recordings reveal the pragmatic use of the TAV, i.e. which of the TAV structures are really used. Complementary to conversation recordings, extracts from Facebook have also been used.

The mechanisms used for analysing all those conversations and Facebook extracts are as follows: first the recordings are transcribed and then the tenses and verbs are underlined and counted. These tenses and verbs are compared and contrasted to those of modern standard Arabic, i.e. how a certain sentence in the (LD) conversation is supposed to be in the (MSA). This step is needed in the comparison and contrast of the (LD), (MSA) discussed in the following section.

These sentences and their equivalent tenses in modern standard Arabic are tabulated. The following sentence from the conversation is used here to demonstrate this:

EXAMPLE (ZD)	EXAMPLE (MSA)	Tense
مجموعة كبيرة رافعيتها	مجموعة كبيرة اخدت	Passive
Majmū'a kabīrah rāf'inhā	Majmū'ātīn kabīrah ūkhīdāt	Simple past

**Table (5) Comparing and Contrasting the Tenses Used in the Conversation Recording to their Equivalents in both Modern Standard Arabic and English Languages**

### 6.1. Tense

As is the case with modern standard Arabic analysis through which the tenses are mainly investigated by discussing the verb, the tenses in Libyan dialects are also, to some extent, discussed by analysing the verb. However, the context and some other parts of speech could also affect the tense, Cuvalay-Haak (1997). For example, the preposition (في fi) changes the tense of the following sentences from future to present continuous:

- محمد تو اصلح السيارة      Maḥamed    taw    iṣalaḥ    isayara. Mahamed will repair the car.

- محمد تو اصلح في السيارة Maḥamed taw iṣalah fi isayara. Mahamed is now repairing the car.

The meaning of the first sentence is a kind of promise in the future, but the use of the preposition makes the meaning present continuous.

The discussion of LD tenses and voice here is done through investigating the verb forms as well as some other parts of speech, particularly, participles and some adverbs.

Tense in Arabic dialects in general is divided into two, past and present or what many researchers term, perfect and imperfect (Abdunnabi 2000, Ageli 1989, Abu-Haidar 1970, Owens 1984, Mitchell and Al-Hassan 1994, Brustad 2000, and Benmamoun 2000).

The future tense is considered a part of the imperfect tense formed via certain prefixes, Eisele (1999). This is discussed later on in this section, and the future is mentioned and dealt with as a separate tense.

### **6.1.1 The Past (Perfect)**

Abdunnabi (2000) and Harvey (1979) claim that the past is formed by attaching suffixes and the present by prefixes, and this claim is supported by Mitchell and Al-Hassan (1994) saying that tense and aspect are inflectional categories. However, it is mentioned in the discussion of modern standard Arabic that the third person singular, masculine perfect verb is used as a paradigm in dictionaries. Taking this into consideration, the past verb form in Arabic dialects, at least in Libyan dialects, is the basic verb form and the inflections are only for gender or plurality. For example, the



verbs (لعب la'b), (كتب katab) and (تكلم takalm), are considered the basic verb form and they are past verbs, the suffixes are only for gender or plurality (لعبت la'bt), (كتبت katabt) and (تكلمت takalmt), for gender, and (لعبوا la'bu), (كتبوا katebu) and (تكلموا takalmu) for plural. So, contrary to what Abdunnabi claims, the perfect form is not formed by any inflections. This case is similar to the normal base verb form of English such as 'go, come speak etc'.

The main function of the past verb is to express past tense whether it is timeless past, definite past or actions that have just occurred. Ageli (1989) introduces five situations where the past is used. These five situations are: an indefinite past time, an action which took place at a definitive past time, an action that has just taken place, an action that precedes another past action (discussed in the aspect section below), and optative expressions. That is, as summarised by Abdunnabi (2000), the past verb form corresponds to the English simple past, past perfect and present perfect depending on the context or pragmatics. For example, the phrase (مشى روح msha rawaḥ) could mean he has just gone home, he went home, or he had gone home.

- مشى روح قبل شوي msha rawaḥ qabil shwai. He has gone home.
- مشى روح امس msha rawaḥ amis. He went home yesterday.
- مشى روح قبل ما تبدا الحفلة msha rawaḥ qabil ma tbda ilḥafla. He had gone home before the start of the party.

According to the five situations mentioned by Ageli, the main use of the past tense is for past action, yet, it could be used for non-past action particularly in proverbs and invocations or as mentioned above in supplication expressions such as in (إلي خلف ما مات) Ili khalif ma māt) and (بارك الله فيك Baraka Allahu fik), Mitchell and Al-Hassan (1994). Other

tense forms are used for past actions. Such this is mentioned in the discussion of the other tenses.

The conversation recordings show conformity with the five situations, in addition, they reveal two ways used for expressing the past. The first is the use of the past verb form and the second is by using participles.

- والشركة البرازيلية بعثت رسالة شكر ليهم wa isharika ilbarasiliya **ba'atit** rsalt shukur lihum. The Brazilian company sent an acknowledgement letter to them.  
(simple past verb form)
- جاتا اشاره انهم بينظروه **jata** isharah inhum binaṭrūh. He received a signal that they would topple him.

The following are examples of the use of participles:

- سالم امحول 150 دينار Salim **imḥawil** 150 dinār. LT: Salim transferred 150 dinars.
- الجماعة امقدمين شكوى Aljama'a **imgadmīn** shakwa. They submitted a compliment.
- ياخذ سيارات **Yakhid** sayarāt. He took cars.

Although there is a normal past form for each of the above verbs, (حول ḥawil), (قدموا gadamu) and (خدا khada), participles are commonly used. This fact is also supported by the findings of Ageli's (1989) Ph-D study which shows that "LA uses the participle (اسم الفاعل Ism alfa'al) in context where MSA employ the simple present". In fact, Mitchell (1952), who investigated the active participle in an Arabic dialect of Cyrenaica, says that the use of the participle is a feature of Bedouin dialects as opposite to Benghazi speech. He says "...where the Bedouin dialect has the participle, Benghazi speech usually shows the perfect tense" (P:32).

The following examples show the use of participles for past action:

رافعينها مجموعة كبيرة Majmū'a kabira **raf'inha**. Means: A large group has been arrested.

Perhaps one explanation for the use of the participle rather than the past form is that the focus is on the fact and not on the action per se. That is, the speaker reports the action as a fact. So, in (LD), the sentences (سالم امحول 150 دينار) Salim imḥawil 150 dinār) and (ياخذ سيارات) Yakhid sayarāt) refer to the fact that Salim got some money by transferring it, and that he got cars. Here are some other examples for further clarifications:

- الشنطة حاطها عند اقاربي Alshanta **ḥāṭha** 'ind aqarbi. I have a bag at my relatives' home.

Here, the speaker is not talking about what he did or where he did it, rather, he is talking about the fact that the bag is/was at his/her relatives' home.

Another example is:

- مفلكه ومافيه حد بيطوع ويشد المجلس كلها عارفاته حرق اعصاب وطياح قدر **imfalka** w ma fiḥ ḥad byṭāwa' wi shd ilmajlis akulha **'arfāta** ḥarig a'ṣab waṭyaḥ qadr.

They all run away and no one wants to volunteer and be in charge for the council. They all know that it is a tiresome and demeaning task.

In this example, there are two participles 'in bold font'. By the participle (مفلكه imfalka), the speaker here mentions the fact that every one refused to take responsibility or be in charge, but not the event of refusing the responsibility and that they are escaping. This is the same with the second participle (عارفاته 'arfata) which means that at that time was that everyone knew it would be tiresome task. Here is another example:

- انت مصر قالعين رئيس و تونس قالعين رئيس و قاعد فيهم الموت و فيه انقلابات و الدنيا متقلقلة, انت قالع نضام بالكامل عمره 42 سنة.

Inta maṣīr **qal'in** ra-īs wa tunis **qal'in** ra-īs wa ga'da fihum iltmot wa fih inqilabāt wa aldina metaqalqila, inta **qala'** nidam bilkamil 'umra 42 sana.

In Egypt, they toppled off the president and the Tunisians, toppled off the president, yet, there are still protests and clashes. You removed a whole regime that has lasted for 42 years.

### 6.1.2. The Present (Imperfect)

Abdunnabi (2000) claims that the imperfect can be either prefixed or/and suffixed, and that it is made up of a subject marker and a stem. In fact, the prefix which is the subject marker is the present (imperfect) indicator. That is, without this prefix, the verb is usually in the past form. The verb (يقرا yagara) illustrates this: (M=male, F=female)

نقرا (1<sup>st</sup> M/F)      تقرا (2<sup>nd</sup> / M),      تقري (2<sup>nd</sup> F),      يقرا (3<sup>rd</sup> M)      تقرا (3<sup>rd</sup> F),  
نقرو (1<sup>st</sup> Plural M/F),      يقرو (3<sup>rd</sup> Plural M/F).

Thus, when the prefixes (تـ, يـ, نـ) are removed, the stem becomes (قروا, قرا). However, there seems to be no suffixes used for forming the present. The case of the present suffixes is just like that explained in the past section and the examples of the verb (يقرا), mentioned above, in that the suffixes are for gender or/and number. Thus, it would be claimed here that besides the function as subject marker, prefixes also inflect the verb tense while suffixes are mainly for number and gender.

The present is used for the present, past and future. Owens (1984) claims that if a neutral time reference is to be assigned to an imperfect verb, it could have present or future, but it often has habitual or generic meaning. It needs a special contextualisation to occur in past,

present or future. However, Ageli (1989) adds that its common use is as a present time reference, and he adds that the imperfect can occur in five situations: habitual, general truth, optative, infinitive present, and historical present. I would regard the first two situations and the fourth as the same in that they express situations or actions that occur regularly as is the case with the English simple present. The other two situations suggest that the present could be used for present or future actions as in supplications like (الله يرحمه) Allah yarḥma), and historical present which is about past events expressed by present verb form. The following are examples of all this:

- في الصباح يقرأ و العشيّة ايدير fi iṣbaḥ yağara wa al'ashiya idūr. He studies in the morning and wanders about in the afternoon. (habitual)
- تطلع الشمس من جبهة الوادي taṭla' alshamis min jīhit alwādi. The sun rises from the valley direction. (general truth)
- ربنا ايفرج عالبلاد rabana ifarij 'al liblad. May Allah save the country. (invocation)
- يلعب في الكورة مليح yali'ab fi ilkūra mliḥ. He plays football well. (infinitive present)
- ايام نلعبوا بالحكاك ونساوا فهم سيارات ayam nala'bū bilḥkak winsawū fihum sayarāt. The days when we play with empty cans and make them toy cars. (historical present).

Mitchell and Al-Hassan (1994) support this use of historical present in Egypt. For example:

- تصور يا صديقي انو المدرس بيشرح الدرس و بيعطي لطلاب امتحان في غيابي taṣawar inu al mudaris biyshraḥ al daris wabiya'ti lṭulāb imtiḥān fi ghyabi. Do you believe that the teacher explains the lesson and gives the students a test while I am absent.

Abu-Haidar (1970) who studied the spoken Arabic of Baskibta, 'a town in Lebanon', adds that the imperfect in subordinate clauses can express future time when the main

clause is future. This is the same with the LA. Below are two examples, one from each dialect.

- خَلِينَا نَاخْدُ مَعَانَا سَلَهْ بَالِكِي لِأَقِينَا دَحِي khalīna nakhud ma'ana salah balki **lagina** deḥi. Let's take a basket with us in case we find some eggs. (Baskibta dialect)
- خَلِينَا نَاخْدُو عَمَانَا سَلَهْ بَالِكِ نَلْفُوا دَحِي khalīna nakhdū 'mana sala balik **nalgū** deḥi. Let's take a basket with us in case we find some eggs. (Libyan dialect)

The verb in the example of Baskibta dialect seems to be in the past, but Abu-Haidar says that the verb in that clause is imperfect meaning 'present'. It could be that it is a feature of that dialect; however, the verb in the Libyan dialect is clearly present. The perfect form is not acceptable:

\* خَلِينَا نَاخْدُو عَمَانَا سَلَهْ بَالِكِ لَقِينَا دَحِي \* khalīna nakhdū 'mana sala balik **lgyna** deḥi. (The English translation is the same as above).

According to the conversation recordings, besides its normal use of present time reference, the imperfect is also used to express some other tenses. In fact, it appears that in some cases it does not matter whether the past action is expressed as a historical present or a general truth. The following are clear examples:

- شِنْ الْعُرُوضِ الْمَلِي اِيَقْدَمُوا فِيهَا بِالشِّ تَنْتَخِبُهُمُ النَّاسُ؟ Shin Al'ruḍ ili iqadmū fiha bash tantaghibhum alnas? (LT) What do they offer (are offering) in order for the people to vote for them?

The speaker is talking about the political propaganda of the Al-ikhwan (brotherhood) party which won the elections in Egypt. Logically the question should be in the past

‘what did they offer (or, what were they offering) to their people?’ However, the speaker uses present tense ‘what do they offer (are they offering)?’

Another example is:

- السيارات اللتي الناس اتحارب بيها. Isayarāt ili inās itḥarib biha. (LT) The cars which people use during the war.

The correct sentence should be: السيارات اللتي الناس حاربت بيها. Isayarāt ili inās ḥaribit biha. ‘The cars which people used during the war’. Here the speaker uses present for a past action, because in its real context, the speaker is talking about the cars which were used during the war a year ago.

A third example is:

- انا انراجي من بكري Anā inraji min bakri. (LT) \*I am waiting for a long time.  
Means: I had been waiting for a long time.

The issue here is that there seems to be no explanation for why the historical present is used, rather than the past for past actions.

Another fact that is revealed by the conversation recordings is that when there is a sequence of events initialled by a time indicator or time reference, particularly past, there is no need for repeating this time reference for every verb of the sequence. This is clear in the following example:

- زمان فيه اللتي ايبيع في الحشيش فيه اللتي ايبيع في الزرابيط و فيه اللتي ايبيع في الحبوب  
**Zeman** fih ili ibi’ fi ilḥashīsh, fih ili ibi’ fi izarābīt, aw fih ili ibi’ fi lḥbūb.

In the past, there were those who sell marijuana, those who sell pills.

The time reference in this example in the word (زمان zeman) means 'in the past'. The rest of the verbs are all in the present form. This finding is also noticed in Kuwaiti and Syrian dialects as studied by Brustad (2000). He calls this 'tense neutralisation' which occurs in narrative sequencing where one verb establishes past time reference for subsequent non-past verbs.

The second situation where the simple present is used for another tense is verb-dependent situations. That is, the semantic properties of some verbs necessitate that the verb is used in its present form even for past situations. These verbs are: (يعرف ya'rif = know, يعتقد y'ataqid = think, يفهم yafham = understand). The verb (يعرف ya'rif) has a different meaning when used in the past as in:

هو مشى عما السواح لانه يعرف المكان Huwa masha a'ma alsuwaḥ lianh ya'rif almakan.

He went with the tourists because he knew the place.

When used in the past, this verb could have a different meaning such as (realised or recognised) as in:

- لما عرف إن القصة انتهت رجع لبلاده Lama 'arif ina alqiṣa intahit raja' libladah.

When he knew/realised/recognised that the case is over, he went back home.

The imperfect is also used for future actions. Ageli (1989) mentions that the imperfect is used for future time in supplication expressions only. Abdunnabi (2000), on the other hand, says that the future tense, as discussed below, is expressed with the imperfect when prefixed with (س sa), or when an adverb of time is used. However, it is noticed in the conversations recorded that in many situations the present is used for future, and it is only the context that indicates the future time reference.



- هاهو يمشي عماك عبدالفتاح Hahu yimshi ‘mak Abdulfataḥ. (LT) Here is Abdulfataḥ goes with you. Here Abdulfataḥ can go with you. (simple present)

- تمشي تمشي و تنقلب عليهم Timshi timshi watinglib ‘alihum. (LT) After all it turns against them. After all it will turn against them. (simple present)

- لوتقوللهم ايجوك كلهم Law itgulilhum ijuk ikulhum. If you tell them, they all come.

(Note: the expression ‘تمشي تمشي’ ‘Timshi timshi’ is an idiomatic expression meaning that something would keep going well until an unexpected (usually negative) result occurs).

### 6.1.3. The Future

Some uses of future tense have already been mentioned in that present and past verb form can be used for future reference. In this section, the basic form of the future tense is discussed as well as some other forms that are used for expressing this tense. Ageli (1989), Persson (2008), Abu-Haidar (1970), Chekili (1982), Eisele (1999) Abdunnabi (2000), and Owens (1984), all agree that the future tense is expressed by prefixing /bi-/ or /ḥa-/ to the imperfect form. However, these two prefixes seem to vary in use according to the various dialects studied by these researchers. For example, Benmamoun (2000) when discussing an Egypt dialect, mentioned that there seems to be no morpheme that is exclusive for future tense, and the future is expressed by the imperfect form and participle. The prefix /bi-/ is a present time reference. This point is also supported by Eisele (1999), and Mitchell and Al-Hassan (1994) saying that the particle /bi/ when prefixed to the present expresses a general time reference, though this general time reference can be expressed without /bi-/:

- هو بيكتب جواب دلواقتي huwa byktb jawab dilwaqti. He is writing the letter now.  
(present continuous)
- هو بيكتب جوابات في الصبح huwa byktb jawabāt fi iṣubh. He writes letters in the morning. (habitual present)

Persson (2008) adds that /bi-/ cannot be a pure marker of future tense in Gulf Arabic dialects. She says that it could be used for the habitual past. She, and some others like Eisele (1999), Mitchell and Al-Hassan (1994) suggest that the particle /ḥa-/ is the obvious future marker. They also introduce other particles and prefixes used for indicating future tense such as ‘raḥ’ that means ‘going to’, ‘yabi’, ‘baga’ and ‘bidi’, all have a meaning similar to ‘want’.

Abdunnabi (2000) says that the prefix /س sa ) is used for future tense in Libyan dialects. In fact, this prefix is of standard Arabic and does not seem to be used in any of the dialects mentioned so far. Ageli (1989) and Benmamoun (2000) confirm that /bi-/ is a future marker in LD. They do not mention any other particles used for future. In (ZD) as shown in the conversation recordings analysis some other words are used for future indication besides this prefix as well as some other tense forms. The following section is the findings of this analysis of the data gained from conversation recordings.

It is generally noticed that (bi-/ḥa-) are attached to an imperfect verb in (LD) for expressing future time. Examples:

- اعتقد ا بيقلعوه الشرط هذا a'taqid **ibyagil'ūh** ishart hādha. I think they will delete this condition.
- يفتح الشكارة **ibyaftaḥ** ishkāra. He will disclose everything.

- وأكيد نحس فيهم بيديروا أشياء انتحارية wa akīd inhis fihum **bidirū** ashia aintiḥarya. I am sure that they will commit suicide crimes.
- أي حد حيتم نقله لتونس يبلغني ay ḥad **ḥaitem** naqla li Tunis ibalghni. Anyone transferred to Tunisia, let me know.
- مش حيتفاعل القضاء mish ḥaitafa'il alqaḍa. Justice will not be activated.

However, it is revealed in the conversations that the future particle /bi-/ is also used with the meaning of 'want to' or 'in order to' in (ZD). Such this use can also be in the present or even past as follows:

- فيه ناس في المنابر بتشوهني انا Fih nās fi almanabir bishawahni anā. (LT) There are some people in the media wants to smear me. There were some people in the media who wanted to smear me.

- هما وقفوه بيحققوا عماه لكن هرب Huma wagafūh biḥaqaqū 'mah lakin harab. They stopped him to question him but he ran away.

The past particle (kan) and (qabil) can also be used with a future verb to express intention similar to that of the meaning 'in order'.

- قبل ابتمشي انروح Qabil ibnimshi inrawaḥ. I wanted to go home / I was about to go home.
- هو كان ابينقده huwa kan ibinqda. He wanted to save him.

Future time is sometimes expressed by using some other words such as (تو taw= right now and تلقى talga will find) as in:

- نلقاه نايش بعدين؟ nalgah nayiḍ ba'dyn? Will I find him awake some time later?

- تو انكلمك واحد *taw inkalmilik wāhid*. I will call someone for you right now.

The use of (تو *taw*) usually has the meaning of promise. The word (تلقى *talga*) is followed by an active participle. One of the people on the Facebook used the word (راح *rah*), which is a Gulf and Egyptian feature, to indicate the future with a sense that this action is certain to happen. As this word occurred only once, it is not deemed to be an LD future marker. In fact, participles themselves can be used for future tense. This is clear in the findings of the conversation recordings as it is also supported by the findings of both Abdunnabi (2000) and Ageli (1989). The following are examples extracted from the conversation recordings:

- غدوة ماشي *Ghudwa mashi*. I am going tomorrow.
- غدوة امسافر الراجل *Ghudwa imsafir alrajil*. The man is travelling tomorrow.

## 6.2. Aspect

It is not the scope of this research to explain all about aspect as it is a broad and complicated topic. Rather, only the broad lines of the aspect that is mentioned in this work is provided. As discussed in the literature review, tense differs from aspect in that aspect is syntactically formed by an auxiliary word while tense is morphologically formed by verb variations (Binnick 1991). Comrie (1976) gave a detailed explanation of aspect (as provided in the literature review) describing that time reference can be either absolute tense that refers to the relationship between the time of the situation and the present moment (the time of the utterance), or the relative tense that relates the time of the situation to another situation. This latter time reference is termed aspect. According to this definition of aspect, the present perfect and continuous are excluded from the aspect category. Binnick (1991) and

Comrie (1976) both agree that aspect is syntactically different from tense in that it is formed with the help of auxiliaries. Thus, these two forms, the present perfect and continuous, are re-included into the aspect group. Simply put, the term aspect in this research focuses on those structures which are formed with the help of auxiliaries or those whose their time reference is dependent on other forms or structures.

In the Arabic language, not all continuous structures are formed with an auxiliary as participles are in many cases used for such forms, particularly continuous structures, as shown in the tense discussion above.

However, again, the discussion of the aspect in this section focuses on those grammatical structures which their time references are dependent on other structures including the present perfect and continuous. This means that the structures discussed in this section are the continuous and perfect tenses. The term tense is used here to refer to any grammatical structure. For example, ‘انا ماشي لسوق’ Anā mashi lisūg’ is a continuous structure but it is referred to as a present continuous tense.

Speaking of auxiliaries, Brustad (2000) argues that several dialect grammars designate verbs meaning ‘to become, to begin and to continue’ as auxiliaries or aspectualizers. For example, the word ‘قاعد qa’id’ in a sentence like ‘علي قاعد يكتب’ Ali qa’id yikteb’ does not necessarily mean that he is sitting down, rather it means that he is still in the process of writing, i.e. meaning ‘to continue’. Culalay-Haak (1997) mentions this particular preverb saying that (‘قاعد qa’id’) in Tunisian dialect this indicates progressive aspect. The following is an example of this ‘قاعد qa’id’ as occurred in conversation recordings:

- قاعدين اطيوا؟ gā’dīn iṭaybu. Are you still cooking?

In this sentence, the speaker was expecting that everything would be ready when he arrived, but was surprised when he found that the group were still in the middle of preparing dinner, so he exclaimed ‘oh, you are still cooking!’

Perhaps the most common auxiliary in Arabic dialects is the copular ‘Kan’ (it is the dialectical form of MSA Kāna). Brustad mentions two reasons for this. First, its meaning and function is identical across dialects; second, it is the only verb that can combine with all three verb forms, past, present and participles.

Not only auxiliaries that express aspect, but the semantic properties of some verbs and the context can also determine the time reference of a structure. For example, the structure ‘نلعب في الكارطة nal’ib fi alkārṭa’ could mean habitual or continuous, that is, ‘I play cards’, or ‘I am playing cards’. So, it is the context that makes this structure either simple or continuous. These context-dependent tenses are not discussed in this section as they are not deemed to be aspect, because, when decontextualized, it does not reflect continuity. Contrary to this structure ‘انا ماشي لسوق Anā mashi lisūg’ which could be either simple future or present continuous. Basically it has the meaning of continuity even when decontextualized. Thus, only the structures whose primary meaning express continuous or perfect tenses are discussed here. As a result, the discussion centres on participles and the auxiliary ‘كان kan’.

Before discussing the role of participles in forming aspects, a brief introduction on what they are and how they are formed is provided. There are two types, active and passive participle. The active means ‘having done the action’ while the passive means ‘having undergone the action’ (Abdunnabi 2000, Mitchell 1952, Mitchell and Al-Hassan 1994). The passive participle can only be derived from transitive verbs such as (يأكل = مأكول ya-kul = ma’kūl, يفهم = مفهوم yafham = mafhūm) but (رقد =

مرقود rǧid = margūd, روح = مرووح rawaḥ = marwūh), however, these, as well as the transitive verbs, can of course be active participle ( ياكل yakil, فاهم fahim, راقد ragid, and امراوح imrawaḥ) respectively, Chekili (1982).

It has been mentioned many times throughout the discussion of tenses that active participles express continuous actions. Hereafter are some examples which occurred in the tense section above extracted from the conversation recordings:

- انا انراجي من بكري Anā inraji min bakri. I am waiting for a while.
- السيارات اللي الناس اتحارب بيها. Isayarāt ili inās itḥarib biha. The cars which people fight by.
- انا ماشي لسوق Anā mashi lisūq. I am going to the market.

These sentences have been used in the tense section to express different tenses; however, they are used here out of the context in which they occurred. When decontextualized like this, they simply imply that the actions are ongoing, i.e. continuous actions, in particular present continuous. Abdunnabi (2000) claims that if the underlying verb is present, the participle can express progressive ‘continuity’. He does not mention any thing about the meaning of ‘underlying’, yet, from the examples he provided, it seems that he means the verb from which the participle is derived. If this is the case, it is still an ambiguous statement in that the tense of the verb from which the participle is derived has nothing to do with such derivation, especially when taking into consideration that participles are tenseless as Brustad (2000) says. Thus, the aspectual meaning of participles cannot be affected by the corresponding verbs.

Participles can also express other aspects ‘or as it is explained above, other tenses. This is when they are preceded with the copular, here referred to as the auxiliary,

‘كان kan’. Thus, (كان kan), in its past form, is followed by participle and expresses past continuous (Abdunnabi 2000, Ageli 1989, and Mitchell 1952). This use corresponds to that of the English language as seen in the previous chapter. The following examples show that the (كان kan) + participle is also used for past continuous in (ZD).

- الجماعة كانوا امروحين لما شدوهم iljama’a kanu imrawḥīn lama shadūhm. The group were going back home when they captured them. (past continuous)

The auxiliary (كان ) can be omitted when the time reference is ascribed either by the context or by another word as in:

- خدوهم بدرعانهم الفرسان.... نازلين من الجبل و هما يضربوا في المكيطة و ايفوتوا عليهم امقيلين قولا  
 khaduhum bidr’anhum ilfursan ..... nazlīn men iljebil wa huma yḍrbū fi ilmikyāṭa wi fautū ‘alīhum imqaylīn qaū lā.  
 They took them with their bare hands ..... descending from the mountain and they are drinking coffee ..... they are going past them having nap not saying a word.

The small arrow (↯) represents where the omitted auxiliary (كان kan) is originally. This omission could be explained as a form of the ‘tense neutralisation’ suggested by Brustad (2000) as mentioned above.

However, it appears in the conversation recordings that the speakers, in many cases, use (كان kan) + participle for past perfect as well. This is illustrated with the extracts from these recordings below:

- كان لاعب كورة قبل ما ايجي للفصل kan la’ib kūra qabil ma ijī lilfaṣīl. He had played football before he came to the class.



Using (كان kan) + participle for past perfect seems to be a dialectal feature. Abdunnabi (2000), and Mitchell (1952), and Ageli (1989) whose studies are on the (LD), did not mention anything about this way of using this structure. Yet, a study by Mitchell and Al-Hassan (1994) has shown similar structures in Egyptian dialects:

- كان عامل الشغل لما دخلت kan ‘amil ishughul lama dakhalt. He had finished the job when I came in.

However, the use of (كان kan) + participle for expressing past continuous is restricted to the participle that involves some kind of motion, i.e. durative aspect, Abdunnabi (2000). The examples below clarify this. The first two are in past perfect, and the other two are past continuous:

- كان قاري القصة كلها لما كلمناه kan qari alqiṣa kūlha lama kalemnah.  
He had read the whole story when we spoke to him.
- كانوا كيف شارينا الحوش لما قصفوه kanu kif sharīna alḥush lama qaṣefūh.  
They had just bought the house when it was targeted.
- كان رافع صغاره للمدرسة لما دار الحادث kan raf’ ishghārah lilmadirsah lama dar ilḥadith. He was taking his children to the school when he made the accident.
- كانت امروحه للحوش لما طاحت kanit imrawḥa lilḥush lama ṭāḥit. She was going home when she fell.

The participles (شارين, قاري) are telic participles that indicate both the beginning and the end of the process of ‘buying’ or ‘reading’, while participles (امروحه, رافع) are atelic participles which denote the beginning of the action but not its end. The telic participles are not used to refer to the past continuous, but the atelic ones can. That is, the sentence (كان قاري القصة كلها لما كلمناه) cannot be interpreted as he/she was reading when called, but the sentence (كانت امروحه للحوش لما طاحت) could also mean

that she had gone back home when she fell down, i.e. the accident did not happen at work, for example.

The use of participles of punctual verbs for past perfect, and durative for past continuous is also recognised in Lebanon as mentioned by Abu-Haidar (1970). However, in Lebanon Arabic dialects, (كان kan) can be followed by perfect verb form to express past perfect as in: takwa

- لما استلمت المکتوب كنت كتبت المکتوب وبعثه lamma istalamt ilmaktūb kunt katabt ilmaktūb wa ba'atheh. When I received the letter, I had written a letter and sent it.

This way of combining (كان kan) and past verb for expressing past perfect does not seem to be acceptable in (LD).

In addition to expressing past continuous and past perfect, some atelic durative participle can also indicate habitual past as in:

- كان شاد محافظ بنغازي. Kan shād muḥāfiḍ Bēghāzi. He was the mayor of Bēghāzi.
- كان واقف لروحه kan waqif li rūḥah. He used to be careful about himself.

Mitchell (1952) claims that the word (قبل qabil) followed by imperfect is more usual in dialects.

- هو قبل ياخذ منها في لفلوس huwa qabil yakhūd menha fi liflūs. He used to take money from her.

The auxiliary (كان) can also precede the imperfect verb to express past continuous, habitual past but not past perfect, Mitchell (1952). (The examples below are taken from (ZD)).

- شن كانوا يقولوا Shin kanu igūlu? What were they saying /used to say?
- كانوا يقدموا في المشروبات لما انا خشيت kanu iqadmu fī almashrūb lama anā khashit.  
They were serving drinks when I came in. (past continuous)
- كنت نلعب في الكورة كويس kūnt nale'ib fī alkūrah kuwais. I used to play football well.
- كانوا يستعملوا في المناديف zemān kanu ysta'melū fī almnadif. In the past, they used to use traps. (habitual past)

Words like and (امحيت imḥīt) and (لما lamma), both mean (when) are used for past continuous in (ZD).

- انا ديما امحيت في طرابلس في لقراية.... anā dima imḥīt fī ṭرابلس fī legraya....  
When I was in Tripoli studying .....
- امحيت يضرب فينا بالجراد imḥīt yaḍrūb fīna biljarād. When he was striking us with grad missiles.
- لما يضرب فينا بالجراد lamma yaḍrūb fīna biljarād.
- لما تبدا باين على الشاشه lamma tabda bayin 'ala ishasha. When you are on the spot.

In fact, these words are not the alternative of the auxiliary (كان kan) as this latter can be used with them as follows:

- امحيت كان يضرب فينا بالجراد imḥīt kan yaḍrūb fīna biljarād. When he was striking us with grad missiles.
- لما كان يضرب فينا بالجراد lamma kan yaḍrūb fīna biljarād. When he was striking us with grad missiles.

This use of (امحيت imḥīt) plus (كان kan) is also used for habitual past as in:

- حتى امحيت كان النظام كانوا يقولوا احذر . . . . . ḥata imḥīt kan inīḍam kanu iqūlu iḥdr . . . . .

Even when the regime was strong, they used to say ‘be aware of .....’.

Prefixed with future tense markers /bi-/ or /ḥa/, the present form of this auxiliary (كان kan) is also used for forming different aspects in the future. This prefixed (كان kan) can be followed by either the present or a participle. In many cases, the future prefix gives the future correspondence of the past form. For example, if the auxiliary (كان kan), in the imperfect form of course, in the last sentence used to illustrate past continuous prefixed with /bi/ or /ḥa/, the result is future continuous, Mitchell and Al-Hassan (1994) agree with this explaining that the copular ‘which is (كان kan) here, plays an important role in projecting the tense of a sentence:

- سيكون يضرب فينا بالجراد bikun yaḍrūb fīna biljarād. He will be striking us with grad missiles.

However, future continuous and perfect do not seem to be investigated by many of the researchers who studied Arabic dialects including Abdunnabi (2000), Mitchell (1952), and Ageli (1989) whose studies are on Libyan dialects. Ageli designated a few lines in his research for future perfect when he compared the (MSA) and (LD) with regard to using this tense. He says that (MSA) uses the structure ‘ كان (in imperfect form) + قد + past form to express future perfect. (LD) is similar to this but the particle (قد qad) is not used. Brustad (2000) provides a table summarising the use of (كان kan) including its use for future perfect and continuous (this table is copied below). Culalay-Haak (1997) studies the Arabic dialects in general, but the most common dialects mentioned are the Egyptian, Jordanian and Moroccan dialects. Yet, he mentions the combinations of (كان kan) when used for future tense and provides some examples mostly from Egyptian dialects. This auxiliary (though he terms it

preverbs just like any other preverb) can be prefixed with /bi-/ or /ḥa-/ and be followed by imperfect, perfect or participle to express future progressive or perfect as in:

- على ما يرجع للبيت, مرتو بتكون نامت 'ala ma yarja' 'albyt martū bitkun nāmit.  
When he comes back home, his wife will have slept. Future perfect
- لما بيرجع عالييت, بتكون بتغسل lamma biyrja' 'albyt bitkun bitaghsil. When he comes back home, his wife will be washing the dishes. Future continuous.
- لما بيرجع عالييت, بتكون غاسلة الصحون lamma biyrja' 'albyt bitkun ghasla iṣehūn.  
When he comes back home, she will have washed the dishes. Future. ( Some vocabularies in this last examples, but not the structure, have been changed for better clarification)

As far as (LD) is concerned, the aforementioned Egyptian examples are similar to those of the (LD) except that the element /bi-/ that prefixed to the imperfect is not used. Therefore, when those examples with /bi-/ prefixed to their verbs are re-structured in (LD), they will be as follows:

- لما يرجع للبيت, بتكون تغسل lamma yarja' lilbyt bitkun taghsil. When he comes back home, his wife will be washing. Future
- لما يرجع للبيت, بتكون غاسلة الصحون lamma yrja' lilbyt bitkun ghāsla iṣehūn.  
When he comes back home, she will have washed the dishes.

Simply put, the imperfect form of auxiliary (كان kan) is formed by changing the middle vowel (ا /a/) to (و u) then prefixed with (ت ta) or (ي y) according to gender and number. In plural, it is both prefixed and suffixed. Thus, the imperfect forms are: (يكون yakun 'singular masculine, تكون takun 'singular feminine' and يكونوا ikunu

plural). However, I use the form (يكون yakun) as the representative of the imperfect form of this auxiliary.

In (ZD), especially when expressing future continuous or perfect, the preverb (تلقى talga) is usually used. This preverb is similar to the auxiliary (يكون yakun) in that it can be followed by either imperfect, perfect verb or participles to make future continuous or perfect verb to make future perfect. However, it seems to be more commonly used for future continuous or perfect than the auxiliary (يكون yakun)

- لما اتجي الساعة 7:00 للحوش تلقاني مشيت. **Lama itji lil ḥush isā'a 7:00, talqāni meshyt.** When you come to the house, I will have gone out. Future perfect.
- لما اتجي الساعة 7:00 للحوش تلقاني ماشي . **Lama itji lil ḥush isā'a 7:00, talqāni mashi.** When you come to the house, I will have gone out. Future perfect.
- لما اتجي الساعة 7:00 للحوش تلقاني انراحي فيك. **Lama itji lil ḥush isā'a 7:00, talqāni inraji fik.** When you come to the house, I will be waiting for you. Future continuous.

However, this preverb (تلقى talga) means either future continuous or perfect when an action is involved by the speaker or the hearer. That is, the exact interpretation of a sentence such as 'تلقاه روح' talgāh rawaḥ' is 'when I/you reach there, he/she will have gone. But, when no act of going is involved, the speaker is just giving a prediction of a present situation. So, the interpretation of the same sentence in this case is 'he must have gone home'. An example of such meaning follows:

- تلقاه يلعب مش يقرأ talgah yal'ib msh yagera. He must be playing not studying.

However, the preverb (تلقى talga) with this meaning can only be suffixed with the third person, i.e. (تلقاه talgah) (تلقاها talgaha) (تلقاهم talgahum), but not (تلقاني talgani) or (تلقاك talgak).

The following is a table that summarises the use of the auxiliary (كان kan) in four different dialects is provided by Brustad (2000). I copied it here and added the (ZD).

Notes: In the table, I used the word ‘Libyan’ to represent (ZD). I also used a different transliteration form than that used by Brustad in order to match the transliteration used throughout this thesis.

Time Reference with /kan/					
	Moroccan	Egyptian	Syrian	Kuwaiti	Libyan
Past state <i>was doing</i>	Kan galis He was sitting	Kan a'id He was sitting	Kan a'id He was sitting	Kan ga'id He was sitting	Kan imga'miz He was sitting
Pluperfect <i>had done</i>	Kan ja He had come	Kan ga He had come	Kan ija He had come	Kan ya He had come	–
Past progressive <i>was/used to be</i>	Kan kayqra He was/used to be studying	Kan biyidris He was/used to be studying	Kan yedrus He was/used to be studying	Kan yadris He was/used to be studying	Kan yaqera He was/used to be studying
Future in relation to past <i>Was going to</i>	Kan ghadi yel'ab He was playing	Kan hayil'ab He was playing	Kan rah yil'ab He was playing	Kan rah yil'ab He was playing	Kan biyil'ab He was playing
Future progressive <i>Will be going</i>	Ghadi ykun kayqra He will be studying	haykun biyidris He will be studying	Bikun/rah ykun biyidris He will be studying	biykun ga'id yadris He will be studying	Ḥaykūn yagera He will be studying
Future perfect	Ghadi ykun wesel	haykun wisil He will have	Bikun/rah ykun wesil	Biykun wusal	Bikūn /ḥaykun

<i>Will have done</i>	He will have arrived	arrived	He will have arrived	He will have arrived	wiṣil He will have arrived
---------------------------	-------------------------	---------	-------------------------	-------------------------	----------------------------------

**Table (6) the Use of (كان kan) in Different Arabic Dialects**

It is not the scope of this work to compare these dialects, but there are some points concerning the (LD) as compared to the other dialects worth mentioning. First, apart from terminology, it is clear that there are great similarities between them in using the auxiliary (كان kan). Secondly, and most importantly, is that contrary to the other dialects, (LD) does accept the perfect verb after (كان kan) to express past perfect. The structure ‘كان kan when followed by a perfect verb’ its meaning becomes similar to (لو laū) meaning ‘if’ in English. The sentence below explains this:

- كان جا راهو ماقعدش في ورطة kan ja rahu maga’adish fi warṭa. If he had come, he would not have this problem.
- كان قرا راهو نجح kan qera rahu nijah. If he had studied, he would have passed.

### 6.3. The Voice

Two types of passive are discussed in the MSA section, inflectional or apophonic passive and lexical or external passive. Culalay-Haak (1997), Laks (2013), and Versteegh (2006) mention that colloquial Arabic lacks apophonic passive. Laks (2013), mentions that the passive in MSA is syntactically expressed, but in Palestinian dialects it is expressed lexically through verb derivation. Thus, the passive is usually expressed through verb forms particularly those with passive or/and reflexive meaning i.e. only external passive is used. Versteegh (2006) mentions that apophonic passive does exist in some Arabic dialects. In Ki Nubi, a dialect spoken in Kenya, the passive is expressed by stress shift. In The Old City in



‘Al-Quds’ internal passive exists in a few verbs like (kūmil) and (wūlid) meaning finished and born respectively. Hassaniyya dialect in Mauritania used to have apophonic passive. As far as the Libyan dialects are concerned, apophonic passive does not exist in North African dialects including Tripoli dialects.

Because of this, the verb forms are briefly mentioned here as a prerequisite for the discussion of the passive. The following table presents the verb forms is similar to that of the MSA passive mentioned in the previous chapter, but with colloquial verbs used instead of the standard ones. These verb forms that are drawn in these tables are as discussed by Abdunnabi (2000).

Following these tables, a detailed discussion of the LD passive is provided with particular focus on ZD.

No.	Form	Active	Example
1	I	فعل	قطع
2	II	فعل	جدد
3	III	فاعل	حاول
4	IV	أفعل	أبدع
5	V	تفعل	تربا
6	VI	تفاعل	تقابل
7	VII	انفعل	انجبد
8	VIII	افتعل	انتقل
9	IX	افعل	-
10	X	استفعل	استغبي

**Table (7a) Triliteral Verbs in LD**

No.	Form	pattern	Example
1	I	فعلل	جرجر
2	II	-	-
3	III	-	-
4	IV	-	-
5	V	تفعلل	تكركب

**Table (7b) Quadriliteral Verbs in LD**

As is the case with the MSA, the verb form (I) is the simplest form from which other verb forms are derived. However, Abdunnabi (2000) mentions that forms (II), (III) and (X) can be derived from other parts of speech such as the verb (جدد *jadid*) that is derived from the adjective (جديد *jadīd*).

The most important verb forms in this section are those inflected with /t/ or /n/. The passive in almost all dialects is formed with prefixing /t/ or /n/ to a verb, i.e. using the verb forms (VI) and (VII). Versteegh (2006) mentions that the dialects, including Tripoli Arabic, are uniform with regard of using these verb forms for passive. In particular, Versteegh (2006) adds that the /n/ form is widely used in North Africa such as Tunisia, Morocco, and parts of Egypt. The verb form (V) of the quadrilateral verbs is also included here as it also has a passive or reflexive meaning. The following are extracts from the conversation recordings.

- فيه موضوع انفتح *fih mawdū' infitāḥ*. LT: There is a case opened, means – A case has been discussed.
- هو انفرض على الشعب *Huwa infariḍ 'ala alsha'ab*. (form VII) He was imposed on the people.
- الباب تكسر *Albāb takasar* (form V). LT: The door broke, means – The door has been broken.
- الحكومة تبي سلاحها ايتكسر *alḥkūma tebi slaḥa itkrsr*. LT: The government wants its weapon destroyed, means – The government wants its weapon to be destroyed.

The second way of expressing passive is using the passive participle. According to the many researchers who have investigated the passive in Arabic dialects like (Abdunnabi 2000, Brustad 2000, Mitchell 1952, Owens 1984, and Versteegh 2006),

the passive participle has the function of an adjective and some of these researchers do not include it in their passive discussion. Culalay-Haak (1997) says that the passive participle is of minor importance for the description of verbal expressions. However, the following sentence is one of the examples used in the conversation recordings that reveals the fact that the passive participle can have verbal function.

- الحاوية مشرية من تونس alḥāwiya **mishriya** min tūnis. LT: The container bought from Tunisia, means – The container has been bought from Tunisia.

The passive participle in this sentence means ‘the container was bought from Tunisia’. When this participle is prefixed with the definite article (ال al), it will have an adjectival meaning as in: الحاوية المشرية من تونس alḥāwiya **almishriya** min tūnis. It means ‘the container which was bought from Tunisia’. This is better clarified with the following examples:

- سيارة جديدة sayāra jedīda. A new car.
- السيارة الجديدة alsayāra aljedīda. The new car.
- السيارة جديدة alsayāra jedīda. The car is new.

The adjective ( جديدة jedīda) in all of the three examples above modifies the noun (السيارة alsayāra). This is not the case with the passive participles:

- ورقة مكتوبة على الطاولة waraga maktūba ‘ala alṭāwla. A paper written on the table. (a)
- الورقة المكتوبة على الطاولة alwaraga almaktūba ‘ala alṭāwla. The paper that is written on the table. (b)
- الورقة مكتوبة على الطاولة alwaraga maktūba ‘ala alṭāwla. The paper is written on the table. (c)

In (a), the meaning or the function of the participle is context dependent in that it could be an adjectival meaning ‘a written paper on the table’ or a verbal meaning ‘a paper was written on the table’. In (b), the participle agrees with the noun ‘الورقة’ *alwaraga*’ and therefore it functions as its modifier i.e. it has an adjectival function meaning ‘the written paper on the table’ or ‘the paper which is written on the table’. However, in (c) the function of the participle is only verbal expressing the passive meaning ‘the paper was written on the table’. Retso (1983) supports by this saying that the passive participle can be used for passive constructions.

The sentences below are from ZD as occurred in the conversation recordings:

- اللبوات محطوطات بحداكم *il-labwāt maḥaṭūṭat biḥdakum*. The cars are parked beside you.
- واللي قاعد في طرابلس هداكا محسوب على طرابلس *willi ga'id fi ṭرابلس hadāka maḥsūb ‘ala ṭرابلس*. Those who are in Tripoli are considered from Tripoli.

Besides these two ways of expressing passive, the active verb form is also used for passive expressions. This, in fact, is very common in ZD. The following are extracts from the conversation recordings:

- هو فرضوه على الشعب *Huwa faraḍūh ‘ala alsha’ab*. He was forced on the people.
- المخازن شكلولهم لجنة *Almakhāzin shakalūlhm lajna*. The housewares, a committee has been formed for them.
- بيعدلو نموذج التسجيل *Bi’adlū nūmūdij altaṣjil*. They will amend the registration form.

This use is also reported in some other dialects. In Sudan and Yemen, as mentioned by Versteegh (2006), the sentences ‘بيكوبو مويًا bikubū moya’ means ‘water will be spilled’, and ‘جابوه من الوادي jabūh men alwadi’, are common.

In fact, these structures are active sentences used for expressing the passive. They are active in that the syntax of the sentence is active, and that the verbs are neither in the /t/ or /n/ form, nor are they participles. Thirdly, the agent is suffixed to the verb just like any other active verb, though this suffixed ‘subject’ does not refer to a particular doer ‘agent’. In many cases, the object initiates the sentence as is the case with ‘المخازن شكلولهم لجنة Almakhāzin shakalūlhm lajna’, but this is called ‘topicalisation’ which has nothing to do with passivisation.

For expressing aspect ‘progressive and perfect’ of the passive forms, there seems to be some possible structures formed with the help of auxiliary, particles and words that are used for tense formation, but none of these structure has occurred in the conversation recordings. The active form, as mentioned above, is largely used instead. Shown below, are some different possible structures:

- الموضوع حيكون انكتب في المجلات ilmawḍū’ ḥaykūn inktb fi ilmajalāt. The issue will be published in the press.
- كانت ترسم باليد kanit tirtisum belyad. (habitual past). It used to be drawn by hand.

However, as already mentioned, such structures are not commonly used in ZD, and none of these structures have been used in conversation recordings. In many cases, the progressive and the perfect aspects are expressed with simple tenses. The following sentences are extracted from these conversations.

- انقالت فيما فات ingalit fima fāt, ‘It was mentioned before’. It is in the simple past, but according to the context from which it is extracted it should be present perfect ‘it has been said before’. The same with this sentence
- المنفذ الوحيد الذي تسلم مطار طرابلس’ ilmanfidh ilwaḥid ili tsalim ilmaṭar. The only port that is handed over was the airport.
- حتتأجل تلقائياً المفوضية قالت ilmufawaḍya galit ḥat-tajil tilqa-iyān, ‘the commission said that it will be postponed automatically’. Simple future.
- وقاعد يتعالج qa’id yta’ālij ‘He is being treated’. Present continuous that is indicated by the preverb (قاعد qa’id).

#### 6.4. Conclusion

There are two tenses in Arabic dialects, perfect and imperfect. The former is past and the latter is present but it includes the future. That is, the future tense is considered as a part of the imperfect tense formed via certain prefixes.

The context and some other parts of speech could also affect the tense as is the example of (في fi) mentioned in the introduction of this chapter.

However, the discussion of LD tenses and voice here arises through investigating the verb forms as well as some other parts of speech, particularly, participles and some adverbs in the discussion of aspect.

The perfect verb form in Arabic dialects, at least in Libyan dialects, is the basic verb form and the inflections are only for gender or plurality. The most widely used function of the perfect verb is to express past tense whether it is timeless past,

definite past or actions just occurred. Yet, it could be used for non-past action particularly in proverbs and invocations and some fixed expressions.

The conversation recordings, (ZD), show similar uses of the perfect form, however, it reveals two ways used for expressing the past. The first is the normal use of the past verb form as mentioned above, and the second is by using participles which appear to be a feature of Bedouin dialects.

The imperfect is formed with prefixing the imperfect marker which is also a subject indicator. It is used for the present, past and future, mainly, in five situations: habitual, general truth, invocations, infinitive present, and historical present. This seems to be common among Arabic dialects including (ZD).

In fact, in (ZD) as revealed by the conversation recordings, some present verbs are used for past situations. These verbs are: (يعرف *ya'rif* = know, يعتقد *y'ataqid* = think, يفهم *yafham* = understand).

The future tense is expressed by prefixing /bi-/ or /ḥa-/ to the imperfect form. However, these two prefixes seem to vary in use according to the various dialects studied by these researchers. In Egyptian dialect, for example, the prefix /bi-/ is a present time reference, but the prefix /ḥa-/ is the obvious future marker. However, /ḥa/ as well as /bi-/ are both future markers in LD. In addition, in (ZD), some other words like: (تو *taw*= right now and تلقى *talga* will find), can also be used for future indication.

For aspect, verbs with the meaning of 'to become, to begin and to continue' are used as auxiliaries or aspectualizers, but the most common auxiliary in Arabic dialects is the copular 'Kan'.

Participles can also express aspects. This is when they are preceded with the copular, ‘auxiliary’, ‘كان kan’ which means ‘to be’. So, when (كان kan), in its perfect form, is followed by a participle, it expresses past perfect, and when followed by imperfect it expresses either past continuous or habitual past. (كان kan) + participle forms past perfect in (ZD). Such this use seems to be a dialectical feature. The use of (كان kan) + participle for expressing past continuous is restricted to participle that involves some kind of motion, i.e. durative aspect, and is used for habitual past only when it precedes the imperfect.

Words like and (امحيت imḥīt) and (لما lamma), both mean (when) also appear to be used for past continuous in (ZD), but they are not past continuous markers in that they are not the alternative of the auxiliary (كان kan)

Prefixed with future tense markers /bi-/ or /ḥa/, the imperfect form of this auxiliary (كان kan) is also used for forming different aspects in the future. This prefixed (كان kan) can be followed by either the imperfect or a participle. Future continuous and perfect do not seem to be investigated by many of the researchers who studied Arabic dialects.

Besides the marker ‘بيكون bikun’ and ‘حيكون ḥaykun’, the preverb (تلقى talga) is usually used in (ZD). This preverb is similar to the auxiliary (يكون yakun) in that it can be followed by either imperfect, perfect verb or participles to make future continuous or perfect verb to make future perfect. However, it seems to be more commonly used for future continuous or perfect than the auxiliary (يكون yakun)

As far as voice is concerned, it has been mentioned that colloquial Arabic lacks apophonic passive including North African dialects.



The passive in most cases and most dialects is formed with verb forms particularly those inflected with /t/ or /n/. That is, employing verb forms (VI) and (VII).

In addition to this way of expressing passive, there are two other means utilised by (ZD) to form passive. The first of these is using the passive participle, and the second is using the active verb form. This, in fact, is very common in ZD.

There are some possible structures formed with the help of auxiliary, particles and words that are used for expressing passive forms of the aspect 'progressive and perfect', but none of them occurred in the conversation recordings. This means that there seems to be no passive progressive or perfect in ZD.

## **Chapter Seven:**

### **Comparison and Contrast of LD,**

### **MSA and English TAV Structures**

In this chapter, the LD and MSA as well as English are compared and contrasted in terms of using TAV. The purpose of this is to discover the syntactic and semantic similarities and difference of TAV in these three language forms. This type of comparison conducted here is not focused on the internal detailed structures of a verb; it rather, focuses on how a grammatical structure, particularly tenses, aspect and passive structures, are formed and what auxiliaries or/and particles are used. The morphological comparison is focused on how the verb is changed according to the tense. From the semantic point of view, the comparison focuses on the meaning of the whole structure and how it is used as well as what alternative ‘i.e. other tenses or aspects’ are used when a tense, aspect, or voice does not exist. Particular attention is drawn to the similarities and difference between TAV in LD and MSA in order to determine which of these two language forms affects the use of the English TAV structures mentioned and is analysed in stage two.

The findings of these comparisons are then compared and contrasted to the structures used by the participants of the second stage.

At the end of the chapter, a diagram and a table summarising the structures and meanings as well as the alternatives used are provided, followed by a short conclusion.

## 7.1. Tense

The concept of time reference is universal, that is all languages have a past, present and future time reference. The difference between languages appears to be a linguistic point of view in that different terminology is used for describing this time reference and in different perspectives from which this time reference is described. For example, in English, there are twelve different tenses, each of which has its own form and meaning, whereas in Arabic there are only three tenses. The future tense in Arabic is considered part of the present, and the imperative, which is regarded a present tense in English, is deemed a separate tense, (though in the discussion of MSA and LD tenses in Chapters Four and Five, the future is considered a separate tense not the imperative). With regard to terminology, the differences are not only between languages, but also within a language. In Arabic, the present is sometimes referred to as imperfect, non-past besides ‘present’. However, in this discussion, the focus is on the form and meaning of the tenses in English, MSA, and LD irrespective of these differences in terminology.

In MSA, most Arabic grammarians mention that there are two tenses, the perfect (past) and the imperfect (present). It seems that for this reason some grammarians like Rev and Thatcher (1922) and Nahmad (1965), describe the Arabic language as ‘poor in tense’. In addition, while English tenses are determined by the verb and the accompanying auxiliary or the whole structure, Arab grammarians discuss tenses through the verb. This results in the fact that the tense of any English sentence can be determined from its structure, but the tense of Arabic sentences in most case is determined by the context in which it occurs. For example, ‘ذهب أحمد’ dhahaba Aḥmed’ can be present perfect, simple past or past perfect, but the English sentence

‘Ahamed has gone’, can only be present perfect. For expressing other tenses or aspect, the structure of the sentence and sometimes the verb form is changed. It has also been revealed, particularly in LD discussion, that not only the context affects the tense, but also some other parts of speech could affect the tense. This is clear in the example of (في fi) mentioned in the introduction of LD tense discussion.

Nonetheless, as previously mentioned, the discussion of tenses here is based on the form and meaning of each one. As the future tense is dealt with as a separate tense in this thesis, it should be mentioned here that there are three tenses that are discussed below: the past, present, and the future tense.

### **7.1.1. The Past**

In MSA, the basic verb form is the past tense. That is, the past verb form of (نام , قال , كتب nāma, kataba, qāla) are in the base form. The verb of the LD is dealt with in the same way. This means that the form of the past tense is the base verb form in both MSA and LD. In English, the base verb form in the present and the past is formed by either inflecting (- ed) or changing the morphology of the irregular verbs. Syntactically, past tense sentences in both MSA and LD mainly contain a subject and past form verb + an object or a complement. The subject indicator is suffixed to the verb. In English, the verb is inflected for tense only. Sentences are normally verbal in both MSA and LD; however, for the purpose of this analysis, nominal sentences are used here to make them syntactically closer to those of the English language. Also, the Arabic example sentences are inverted to match in the diagram. For space, only transliteration forms are used to represent the Arabic sentences.

	Subject	Aux	Verb	Object
Eng:	Mohamed	Ø	took	his car
MSA:	Moḥamed	Ø	akhada	sayāratuh
LD:	Maḥamed	Ø	khda	sayārta.

It is clear from the diagram that the simple past sentence structure is almost identical in the three language forms.

From a semantic point of view, the meaning of the English simple past is simply to express past actions in general. In MSA, the past expresses past actions whether these actions are close to the present or occurred a long time ago. In LD, the main function of the past is to express past actions whether they are timeless past, definite past or actions just occurred. Thus, the common thing between the three language forms, ‘English, MSA and LD’, regarding this tense is that it expresses past actions in general. In English, present perfect is used for timeless past or actions which have just occurred. The detailed use of MSA and LD past tense ‘such as its use for present perfect or past perfect’ is discussed in the aspect section below. Yet, it is worth mentioning here that the past in MSA is used for four situations: 1) for indefinite past actions, 2) for definite past, 3) for present situations as in contracts, 4) for future mainly for religious expressions. LD past tense is used for five situations: 1) for indefinite past, 2) for indefinite past, 3) for recently occurred actions, 4) for past actions preceding another past action, 5) for present or future events mainly in supplications.

Some of these usages are discussed in detail below; others that express aspect are discussed in the following section.

The past tense in both MSA and LD can be used for non-past actions. The MSA uses a past verb form for present actions in two situations, in ‘contract’ terms, and in some religious expressions such as in supplications. These uses of past verb for non-past actions are similar to those of the LD as some proverbs and invocations could be expressed by non-past but using the past for ‘contract’ terms is not recognised in LD. Both MSA and LD use the past verb form for general things, that is for situations that could happen in the past, present or future. For example: سواء عليك قمت ام قعدت sawaun ‘alika qumta am qa’ita. (MSA) and: لا ماجبتهاش ما تعنيلي شي jebtiha wa la majabehash ma ta’nili shai ‘whether you bring it or not, it means nothing to me. (LD).

It has been mentioned that LD employs participles for past actions as in: احمد شاري احمد شاري حوش Aḥmed shari ḥush (although there are some semantic differences between using simple past verb form and using participle, Chapter Six). Such this form is not acceptable in MSA. Another difference between MSA and LD is that in MSA the past verb form can be used for future actions to show that these actions are sure to happen. Such this use has not been noticed in LD. Thus, MSA and LD seem to be different in terms of participles used for simple past actions, and this conclusion is explicitly stated by Ageli (1989) saying that “LA uses the participle (اسم الفاعل) Ism alfa’al) in context where MSA employs the simple present”, and in the use of past verb for future actions. Another difference between MSA and LD is that the past verb form in LD used for present is only in supplications, while in MSA, it is used for two situations, supplications and contract terms.

The difference between the MSA and LD, on one hand, and the English language, on the other, centres on the fact that the English language has a variety of tenses for expressing different situations. That is, whereas the past in LD is used for definite, indefinite past, a recent action or a past action preceded by another past action, the English language uses simple past for definite past actions but it uses present perfect for indefinite past and recently occurred actions and past perfect for pluperfect. For MSA, present perfect and past perfect do exist, but simple past could be used instead. It is also mentioned that the past verb in MSA and LD can be used for present or future situations, the English past verb can only express present or future in two cases: in conditional clauses as in: ‘If I had enough time, I would go’, or in optative expressions such as: I wish I could do this’.

### **7.1.2. The Present**

In English, the present is formed with the basic verb form except for the third person when ‘s’ is added to the verb. So, the structure of this tense is: Subject + Verb + Object or Complement. This is considered the base form of the English sentence. In MSA, the present tense is mostly formed by the prefixes (يـ ya), or (تـ ta). These prefixes have two functions; they indicate the tense and the person. As for the (يـ ya), besides its function as present marker, it is also used for indicating the third person masculine, singular or plural. For the first person (أـ a) is used and (تـ ta) is used for third person feminine. In case of plural, the verb is both prefixed and suffixed. (نـ n- for first persons, تـ ta for second persons, يـ ya for third persons) person prefixes, and (انـ -an for dual, and -وا u for more than two) are number suffixes. The present verb in LD is also formed by either prefixed or/and suffixed, and that these affixations indicate the subject marker as well. The difference between LD and MSA in terms

of number suffixes is that there is no ‘dual’ suffix (ان –an) in LD. Just like the case with MSA, these prefixes, which are the subject markers, also function as the present tense indicators. The prefixes used for indicating present tense in LD are: (نـ , بـ , and تـ). That is, they are the same in MSA, but for the first person a (نـ n-) is used instead of (اـ a) in LD. This is similar to the plural first person marker in MSA:

- (MSA نـ n-) نكتب naktub. (LD نـ n-) نكتب nkteb.

The basic structure of this tense in the three language forms are illustrated below:

	Subject	Aux	Verb	Object
Eng:	Mohamed	Ø	plays	football
MSA:	Moḥamed	Ø	yal’ib	alkūrah
LD:	Maḥamed	Ø	yal’ib	fi alkūra.

The diagram shows a great degree of similarity among the three language forms. No auxiliary is used in all three languages. The structure is S + V (present form) + Object. The difference appears in the LD where a preposition is needed with the object. It is mentioned in the introduction of the tense section in the previous chapter that the preposition ‘fi’ could change the meaning of the tense. However, in this sentence, it does not seem to have any effect on the overall meaning but the sentence without it is inappropriate. The speakers of ZD tend to use (في fi) with a great number of activities such as: يلعب في الكورة, في الكارطة, في الشطرج and so on. This (في fi) is only used with present tense whether it is habitual or continuous. In past or future



tenses, it is dropped: لعب الكرة la'b ilkūra, \* لعب في الكرة la'b fi alkūra, or \* بيلعب في الكرة biyal'ib fi alkūra. I say ZD because I am not 100 percent sure that other Libyan dialects use (في fi) in such way.

In MSA, the present tense verb has three moods each of which has a special meaning: in indicative, subjunctive or jussive moods. The indicative mood has the meaning of factual statements while the subjunctive mood expresses doubt, desire or wish, and the jussive mood does not carry any particular semantic meaning, but is used for imperative indicating an attitude of command. One mood is used in LD.

Semantically, the present tense in English is generally used for facts, routines and habits that occur frequently or for a relatively long time. It can also be used for future situations as when the action is certain to happen in the future or when the events or actions are time tabled. It is also used for past events in the historical present. These usages seem to be common among the three language forms. In addition, the present tense in MSA can express future in some other situations. First, when the particle (لن lan) precedes the verb as in: لن يعمل احمد في المعمل lan ya'mal Aḥmed fi alma'mal. Besides historical present, the present tense could be used for past actions when it is preceded by (لم lam, and لما lamma) as in: لم يعمل احمد في المعمل lam ya'mal Aḥmed fi alma'mal.

In LD, it is also commonly used for present situations, but it has been mentioned that using the present tense for future when the actions are planned or sure to happen. It is also used for the past for historical present similar to that of English and MSA. In LD, the active participle can be used besides the present verb form to express habits as in:

راقد في الحوش لا خدمة لا مقدمة ragid fi alḥuṣḥ la khidma al gidma, ‘staying at home without doing anything’. Apart from this, there seems to be no special features that distinguish LD from English or MSA in using the present tense.

### 7.1.3. The Future

In English, the future tense is formed with the auxiliary ‘will’ followed by an infinitive verb form. The auxiliary ‘shall’ has the same meaning as that of ‘will’, but this latter is more commonly used. In MSA, the prefix (سـ sa) or the preverb (سوف sawfa) are used. Both are used with the present verb form. In LD, prefixes (بـ bi) or /حـ ḥa/ are attached to a present verb.

	Subject	Aux	Verb	Object
Eng:	Mohamed	will	play	football
MSA:	Moḥamed	sawfa/ sa-	yal’ib	alkūrah
LD:	Maḥamed	bi-/ḥa-	yal’ib	alkūra.

Again, similarity between the three languages is clear in that all use ‘particles’ for forming future tense. In English, this particle is termed ‘an auxiliary’ and in MSA and LD it is termed ‘prefix’. The subtle difference between (سـ sa) and (سوف sawfa) as mentioned in (4.2.2.4) in that the latter is for near future while the former is for further future, and that (سـ sa) cannot be negated.

Similarity seems to be vivid in the semantics of the future tense in that it is used for future actions only in all the three languages. However, in LD, the present verb form prefixed with the future element /bi/ and preceded with (قبل gabil) can be used for

intended past action as explained in (5.3.1.3): قَبيلِ ابْنِ مِشِي انْروَحِ Qabil ibnimshi inrawah. In fact, it equals the English sentence ‘I was about to go home’. LD also uses the preverbs (تَوِ taw= right now or (تَلَقَى talga will find) meaning ‘you will find ....’. The former is commonly used for promises.

The difference between the two prefixes /bi-/ and /ḥa-/ is that the former usually expresses intention while the latter has the sense of determination. Also, /bi-/ is not used when the negation particle (مِش mish) is used:

- مِش حَيْمِشِي لِلْمَدْرَسَةِ mish ḥaymshi lilmadrassa. - مِش اِبْيَمِشِي لِلْمَدْرَسَةِ \* mish ibymshi lilmadrassa. He will not go to school.

LD /bi-/ usually has the meaning of ‘want to’ or ‘in order to’, and when it is used with this meaning, it can have past meaning as well. This use of /bi-/ for past can be clearly demonstrated by the fact that the past form of (كَانَ kan) can be used with it, in particular, it expresses past intention similar to ‘wanted to’:

- كَانْ بِيْسَاعِدَةَ لَكِنْ مَابَالَاشْ kan bisa’dah lakin mabalāsh. He wanted to help him, but refused.

In LD, words such as ‘تَوِ taw’ and ‘تَلَقَى talga’ are used for future time reference. The former is followed with a present verb form, and the latter is usually followed by an active participle. ‘تَوِ taw’ has the meaning of giving promise, and ‘تَلَقَى talga’ expresses future continuous or perfect depending on the state of the following verb. This is dealt with in the following section.

## **7.2. Aspect**

The Arabic aspect discussed in the two previous chapters is based on the structure and the meaning. In other terms, it is based on how the particle (قد qad) or the auxiliary (كان kan) are used for forming different aspects. The aspect discussed here focuses on the meaning of the structure i.e. progressive and perfect. It is mentioned in the introduction of this chapter that the English language has more detailed tense and aspect classifications than that of the Arabic language, or it would be said that the Arabic grammarians do not explicitly divide the Arabic aspect into progressive and perfect, but they include it in their discussions as seen in Chapter Four and Five. Thus, English classification of the aspect into ‘progressive and perfect’ is used as a basis in this comparison. Therefore, the mechanism followed here is that the aspect is divided into two main sections, progressive and perfect. The same procedures used for comparing tenses in that the syntax is discussed followed by the semantics of these tenses, is followed in the discussion of aspect.

### **7.2.1. Progressive**

The progressive forms in English are of two types, compound progressive and simple progressive. The former is a combination of the progressive and perfect represented in the forms of future, present and past perfect continuous, and the latter is simply the form of future, present and past continuous. In this discussion, the term ‘continuous’ is used instead of ‘progressive.

### 7.2.1.1. Perfect Continuous

In the Arabic language, including its dialects, such subdivisions do not exist, although there are structures that equal some of the aspect in English, particularly the continuous structures. There seems to be no perfect continuous in MSA and LD. Yet, there is a contextually-dependent structure that is closer to the meaning of the English future perfect continuous in LD. This dialectical structure of perfect continuous is actually used in one of the sentences written in MSA for the focus group method. This is explained in the following examples:

- في نهاية هذه السنة سيكون لي عشرون سنة اشتغل في هذه الشركة \*

Fī nihāyat ḥādhīh alsanah sā yakun lī ‘shrūn sanah ashtaghil fī hādhīh al sharikah.

By the end of this year, I will have been working for twenty years for this company.

(Li) is made up of two elements (/l/) and (/i:/). The former is a preposition means (to) and the latter is a pronoun means (me). This pronoun changes according to the person just like any other suffixed pronouns, i.e. (لك līk, لكم līkum) and so on. The general meaning of these elements is (to me, mine, or belongs to me), but when used in such structures its meaning becomes closer to ‘have’ or ‘possess’. Of course, it is not a marker of perfect continuous tenses, therefore I term it a ‘particle’ here.

The use of the particle (لي lī) is informal, yet, it is used in the focus group among the modern standard Arabic sentences to see if there are any changes in the participants’ responses. The reason for using this is that the exact translation of this tense into “standard Arabic” requires two clauses. For example, the translation of “By the end of this year I will have been working in this company for 20 years” is:

في نهاية هذه السنة ساكون قد امضيت عشرون سنة اشتغل في ه ذه الشركة و مازلت

(اشتغل)

Fī nihāyat hādhīh alsanah sā -kun qad amḍaitū ‘shrūn sanatin ashtaghil fī hādhīh al sharikah wā māziltū ashtāghil (or- I am still so).

The following is one sentence from the participants’ responses:

- في اخر العام ابيبدأ ليا 20 سنة في هذه الشركة

Fī akhir al ‘ām ibyabda liya 20 sana fī hādhīh alsharikah.

The word (ابيبدأ ibyabda) meaning (will begin) is used before (لي li) which is inflected for person (ليا liya). The difference between the MSA using (امضيت – amḍaitū) and LD using (ليا liya) structures is that in the MSA the focus is on the end of a period while in LD the focus is at the start of a period. That is, the phrase “ساكون قد امضيت” - sākūn qad amḍaitū ‘shrūn sanatin” means ‘at the end of the year I will have finished the twentieth year working at that company’ because of the use of “امضيت – amḍaitū” that means “spent”. In LD, the word “ابيبدأ (ibyabda) meaning ‘ I will start/ begin’ indicates the start of a period, so it means ‘At the end of this year. I will start/begin being working at this company for twenty years’.

However, the future perfect continuous is marked as non-existent for two reasons. First, the verb (امضيت – amḍaitū) is a perfect verb form that follows the auxiliary (ساكون قد sa-kunū qad) is in fact not perfect continuous, and the dialectical verb (ابيبدأ ibyabda) is not a particular marker for perfect continuous aspect. Secondly, this LD structure has the meaning of the future perfect continuous only in certain contexts or when used in conditionals as in the example above.

Therefore, the structure of the future perfect continuous can be as in this diagram:

	Subject	Aux	Verb	Object
Eng:	Mohamed	will have been	playing	football
MSA:	-	-	-	-
LD:	-	-	-	-

There are four elements employed for forming the English future perfect continuous. The auxiliary is ‘made up of three parts’ and the participle form of the verb. There are no equivalent structures in MSA and LD. This is also the case with the present and past perfect continuous.

In English, the future perfect continuous is used for actions that last for a specified period of time at a definite moment in the future. That is, by a certain time in the future, an action will have been happening for a period of time. There is no such structure in MSA, but in LD the phrase of (اببيدا) *ibyabda* is sometimes used with a similar meaning of that of the English language as mentioned earlier.

The MSA verb (امضيت – *amḍaitū*) and the LD particle (لي *lī*) are also used for the present perfect continuous: امضيت اكثر من ساعة اتمرن *amḍaitū akthr men sa’ah atamarin*, I have spent more than one hour training, means. (MSA), ليا اكثر من ساعة *Liya ākthir min sa’ā* انتمرن *intmarin*, ‘I possess one hour of training, means, ‘I have been traing more than one hour’ (LD). For past perfect continuous, the MSA uses the past perfect structure that is formed with (كان قد *kāna qad*): امضيت اكثر من

اتمرن كنت قد ساعة اتمرن kuntū qad amḍaitū akthr men sa'ah atamarin. The (لي لي) structure is used in LD structure كان لييا اكثر من ساعة انتمرن kan liya aktir men sa'ā intmarin. (كان kan) can be omitted when the meaning is clear from the context:

ليها فوق الساعة اتراجي لما اتصلوا بيها liha fuḡ isa'a itraji lamma itaṣlū bīha. She has been waiting for an hour when they called her.

Again, the MSA structure in fact equals the past perfect and the LD structure is not really a grammatical form in that it does not contain a specific auxiliary or tense marker. As in the case with the future perfect continuous, the present and the past perfect continuous are also deemed non-existent. therefore, the structure is:

	Subject	Aux	Verb	Object
Eng:	Mohamed	has/had been	playing	football
MSA:	-	-	-	-
LD:	-	-	-	-

#### 7.2.1.2. Simple Continuous

Simple continuous structures in English are formed with the auxiliary 'be' followed by an '-ing' verb form. In case of future continuous, this 'be' is preceded by the auxiliary 'will'. In MSA and LD, the active participle is used besides the present verb form for continuous structures. In many cases, especially when a present verb is used, it is only the context or some other words that distinguish simple from continuous meaning. Participles are used for present continuous, but again, it is the



context that distinguishes it from simple future. In other words, present verb forms have the meaning of habitual ‘therefore simple’ present, or present continuous according to the context, and participles have the meaning of present continuous or simple future depending on the context. For future continuous in LD, the dialectical future prefixes /bi-/ or /ḥa/ are used with the present form of (كن kan) instead of the formal (sa-/sawfa) of the MSA. The dialectical preverb (تلقى talga) is commonly used for future continuous. For past continuous, (كان kan) is used in both MSA and LD.

	Subject	Aux	Verb	Object	
Eng:	{ Future Present Past }	Mohamed	{ will be is was }	{ playing }	football
MSA:	{ Future Present Past }	Moḥamed	{ sayakun - kāna }	{ dhāhiban }	ila al’amal
LD:	{ Future Present Past }	Maḥmed	{ bi/ḥaykun - kan }	{ mashi }	lil’amal

The future continuous structures in MSA and LD are restricted to participle derived from durative verbs. The sentence ‘Moḥamed sayakūn lā’iban alkūrah’ is ungrammatical in MSA and LD.

The meaning of the future continuous in English is to express actions that will be taking place at a time point in the future, and the meaning of the present continuous is expressing actions taking place at the time of speaking, and the past continuous expresses interrupted past actions or the background of other past actions. This concept seems to be common between the three language forms. In MSA, the past continuous that is formed with participles can also express habitual past as in: كان صابرا محتسبا. Kāna ṣābiran mūhtasīban. In LD, only the present verb form when used with (كان kan) can express habitual past. In short, past continuous is formed with (kan) followed by a present verb or an active participle in both MSA and LD. In addition, this auxiliary (kan) followed by a present verb can also express habitual past in both MSA and LD, but only MSA uses an active participle for habitual past. Only some punctual participle express habitual past in LD.

### **7.2.2. The Perfect**

The perfect structures in English are formed with the auxiliary verb ‘to have’ followed by the verb in past participle. For future perfect, ‘will’ precedes the verb ‘to have’ and for past perfect, the past form of ‘to have’ is used. In MSA, the particle (قد qad) is used as a perfect marker. In future perfect, it is preceded by the present form of the auxiliary (يكون yakun), and the past form (كان kāna) for past perfect. In both structures ‘future and past’, this auxiliary is followed by past verb form. In LD, besides the preverb (تلقى taga) (4.3.2), together with past verb form, the auxiliary (كان

kan) in the present form and prefixed with the future marker /bi/ or /ḥa/ is used for future perfect. There is no specific grammatical structure for present and past perfect.

Thus, the structures for the perfect are:

	Subject	Aux	Verb	Object	
Eng:	Mohamed	Future	played	football	
		Present			will have
		Past			has
		had			
MSA:	Moḥamed	Future	lā'iba	alkūrah	
		Present			sayakun qad
		Past			qad
		kāna qad			
LD:	Maḥmed	Future	la'ab	alkūra	
		Present			bi/ḥaykun
		Past			-
		-			

Semantically, the future perfect in three language forms, English, MSA and LD are used for action that will finish at a specific time in the future. In LD, (قَدْ qad) is not used, therefore, the future perfect is either expressed by the (bi/ḥayakūn) or by using

(talga) followed by past verb. The present perfect talks about two past situations in both English and MSA. The first is for past actions without a specific time ‘timeless past’, and the second situation is when the past action has a present effect. However, the simple past is also used instead of present perfect in MSA, but in LD, the simple past is the only form used for both present and past perfect. The English past perfect describes an action that occurs and finishes before another past action. This usage also matches that of the MSA, but there is no past perfect in LD, simple past is also used for past perfect.

### **7.3. The Voice**

The comparison here does not follow the same mechanisms and procedures that are followed in the comparison of tense and aspect. This is due to the fact that in many cases the three language forms, English, MSA or LD, use different structures or completely different ways of expressing passive from each other. Thus, the comparison here focuses on how each language expresses the passive and in what situations it is used.

First, how each language expresses passive and what structures are used is highlighted, followed by the situation in which passive is preferred.

The passive in English, and also in MSA is internally expressed. That is, it is expressed by changing the internal structure of the verb, i.e. apophonic. However in English, it is the whole verb form ‘past participle’ with the help of the auxiliary ‘be’ that is used in forming the passive. In MSA, it is the vowel system of the verb that is used for passive structures. For other passive tenses and aspects, the same structures of tenses and aspects discussed above, are used including the auxiliaries

such as ‘will’ and ‘have’ in the case of English, and ‘كان kāna’ and ‘قد qad’ in MSA. There is another way of forming passive in MSA. It is an external passive formed through some derived verb forms. Many Arabic grammarians refer to these two ways of MSA passive ‘inflectional’ meaning apophonic’ and ‘derivational’ meaning ‘external’.

This latter type of passive formation is also one of two styles used in LD. As many Arabic dialect researchers say, there is no apophonic ‘internal’ passive in Arabic dialects including LD, either derivational ‘external’ or active structures are use.

Therefore, all this means that there is one way of expressing passive in English, two ways in MSA, and also two ways in LD one of which is the same as that of the MSA. Below are some examples of all these passive forms. First, the English and MSA are compared:

Al	walad	kasara	al	nāfidhah.	(Active MSA)
↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	
The	boy	broke	the	window.	(Active English)

al	nāfidhah	Kūsirat	(passive MSA)
↓	↓	⏟	
The	window	was broken	(passive English)

So, the similarity between these two languages is that the object becomes the subject followed by a passive verb. In English, the passive verb is indicated by both the verb form in that it is in past participle, and by the auxiliary verb ‘be’. In MSA there is no auxiliary. The verb in MSA can be in the initial position, and normally it is, but here the example sentence is initiated with the subject for comparison purposes.

The other means of expressing passive in MSA is employing the verb form such as verb forms (V) and (VII) that are sometimes known as the /n/ and /t/ verbs. This somehow has no equivalent in English, although some ergative verb could be similar to this as in: the book reads well, or the glass breaks easily. Such this use is not classified under the passive category. Besides these two verb forms, sometimes the form (IX) of the trilateral verbs, and the verb form (II) of the quadrilateral verbs can also be used for passive. However, MSA tends to use inflectional passive more than derivational passive, because, as Alsamerrai (2003) says, there is a difference between inflectional and derivational passive. The inflectional passive form that uses the verb (فُعِلَ fu'il) means that the action is external. That is triggered by someone or something, while in the passive form (انْفَعَلَ infa'al) the action seems to be internal, i.e. reflexive.

- فُجِرَ الاِطَارُ fujir aliṭār. The tyre was exploded (someone or something caused it to explode)
- انْفَجَرَ الاِطَارُ infajar aliṭār The tyre exploded ( by itself).

The passive participle (اسم المفعول) is also used in passive constructions in MSA, however, it is mainly used as an adjective as in: العَلْبَةُ مَفْتُوحَةٌ al'ulba maftuḥah.

The passive is sometimes paraphrased in MSA by using the verb (تم tamma).

The Arabic verb forms (V), (VII), (IX) and 'quadrilateral form' (II) are also used in LD. This is the similarity between MSA and LD in passivisation. The other means of expressing passive in LD is using passive participle. It is mentioned in Chapter Five, section (5.3.) that the passive participle is used for expressing passive particularly when it is indefinite and followed by a prepositional phrase. Further examples are listed below:

- السيارة مسروقة من المدينة Alsayāra msrūga men ilmadīna. (passive)
- السيارة مسروقة Alsayāra msrūga. (adjective)
- السيارة المسروقة من المدينة Alsayāra almsrūga men ilmadīna. (adjective)

This use of passive participle for expressing passive seems to be acceptable in MSA as well, although many researchers have undermined the importance of the passive participle in passive structures.

The third means of expressing passive is by using active verbs. The subject of this type of passive-meaning active sentences is always the plural third person (وا) means (they), even though the agent is not known or it could be single.

Below is comparison of the reasons for using passive in both MSA and the English language. They are copied from the discussion chapters, but rearranged for comparison purposes. That is, similar points are given similar numbers in both lists. The first list is on MSA and the second is on English.

#### **A- MSA:**

- 1- When the action is more important than the doer, or when emphasising and ensuring that the action is done.
- 2- For avoiding personal involvement.
- 3- When the agent is not known.
- 4- When the agent is known to the hearers/readers.

#### **B- English**

- 1- The passive is used when the action is more important than the doer.
- 2- The passive is used to avoid personal involvement or responsibility

- 3- It is used when the agent – the doer – is not known or not specified.
- 4- It is used to avoid long subjects.
- 5- It is used to thematise processes rather than the doers or agents.

It is clear now that in many cases the purpose of using the passive is similar in both MSA and English. They are similar in that they use the passive for emphasising the action rather than the doer, when the doer is not known or to avoid its involvement. However, the passive is also used in MSA when the doer is already known to the hearers/readers. It is not mentioned whether the passive is used in such situation in English. On the other hand, the English language uses passive to avoid long subjects, whereas in Arabic it seems that long subjects do not necessitate passive, as in:

- الجماعات المساندة للميليشيات التي تحارب الثوار منذ اندلاع الاشتباكات رفضت كل المبادرات

Aljama'at almusanidah lilmilishyat alati tuḥarib altuwār mundhū indilā'  
 alishtibakāt rafaḍat alḥiwar.

The mercenaries that support the militia fighting the rebels since the start of the clashes refused all the initiatives.

Point number five (5) 'to thematise processes' is similar to number one in that the passive is used to make the process or the action the topic of the passive.

The reasons for using the passive in LD are not mentioned, but it seems to me that the first three reasons are also applicable to LD. There appears to be a degree of similarity between LD and English concerning point number five 'to thematise processes'. This process is achieved through what is termed 'topicalisation' in which the topic of a sentence occupies the initial position in the sentence. However, it should be mentioned here that this process for topicalisation is not part of the passive



as it can occur in the passive sentence as well. The following are examples extracted from the conversation recordings:

- المخازن شكلولهم لجنة il-makhāzin shakalūlhm lajna.
- المفتاح رفعة احمد almuftāḥ rāf'a Aḥmed.
- السيارة ايصالح فيها السطى Alsayāra iṣalah fīha iṣṭā.

#### **7.4. Conclusion**

Thus, in this chapter, MSA, LD and the English languages are compared and contrasted in terms of using TAV. Many similarities and differences are shown when using TAV among the three language forms in both syntactic and semantic fields.

The following tables and the diagram summarise the existence and use of TAV in English, MSA, and LD. Due to the fact that the English language has a wider range of tenses, it is used as a model to which other languages are compared.

Only tenses and aspects that have their own syntactic structures are considered as existent. For example, tenses that are only determined by the context are excluded.

For space, the word 'Alternative' is abbreviated to 'Alt'. This abbreviation shows which tense or structure is used instead of the non-existent one.

Tense

	English	MSA	Alt.	LD	Alt.
1-	Future perfect continuous	-	Future perfect	-	Simple future
2-	Future perfect	+		-	Simple future
3-	Future continuous	-		+	
4-	Simple future	+		+	
5-	Present simple	+		+	
6-	Present continuous	-		-	
7-	Present perfect	+		-	Simple past
8-	Present perfect continuous	-	Simple past	-	Simple past
9-	Past simple	+		+	
10-	Past continuous	+		+	
11-	Past perfect	+		-	Simple past
12-	Past perfect continuous	-	Past perfect	-	Simple past

**Table (8a) Comparison of Tense and Aspect in MSA and LD**

## Voice

	English	MSA	Alt.	LD	Alt.
13-	Passive Future perf. Cont.	-	-	-	-
14-	Passive Future perfect	+	-	-	/n/, /t/- form in simple future
15-	Passive Future continuous	-	-	-	-
16-	Passive Future simple	+	-	-	/n/, /t/- form in simple future
17-	Passive Present simple	+	-	-	/n/, /t/- form or active in simple present
18-	Passive Present continuous	-	-	-	-
19-	Passive Present perfect	+	-	-	/n/, /t/- form or active in simple past
20-	Passive Present perf. Cont.	-	-	-	-
21-	Passive past simple	+	-	-	/n/, /t/- form or active in simple past
22-	Passive past continuous	+	-	-	active in simple past
23-	Passive past perfect	+	-	-	/n/, /t/- form or active in simple past
24-	Passive past perf. Cont.	-	-	-	-

**Table (8b) Comparison of Voice in MSA and LD**

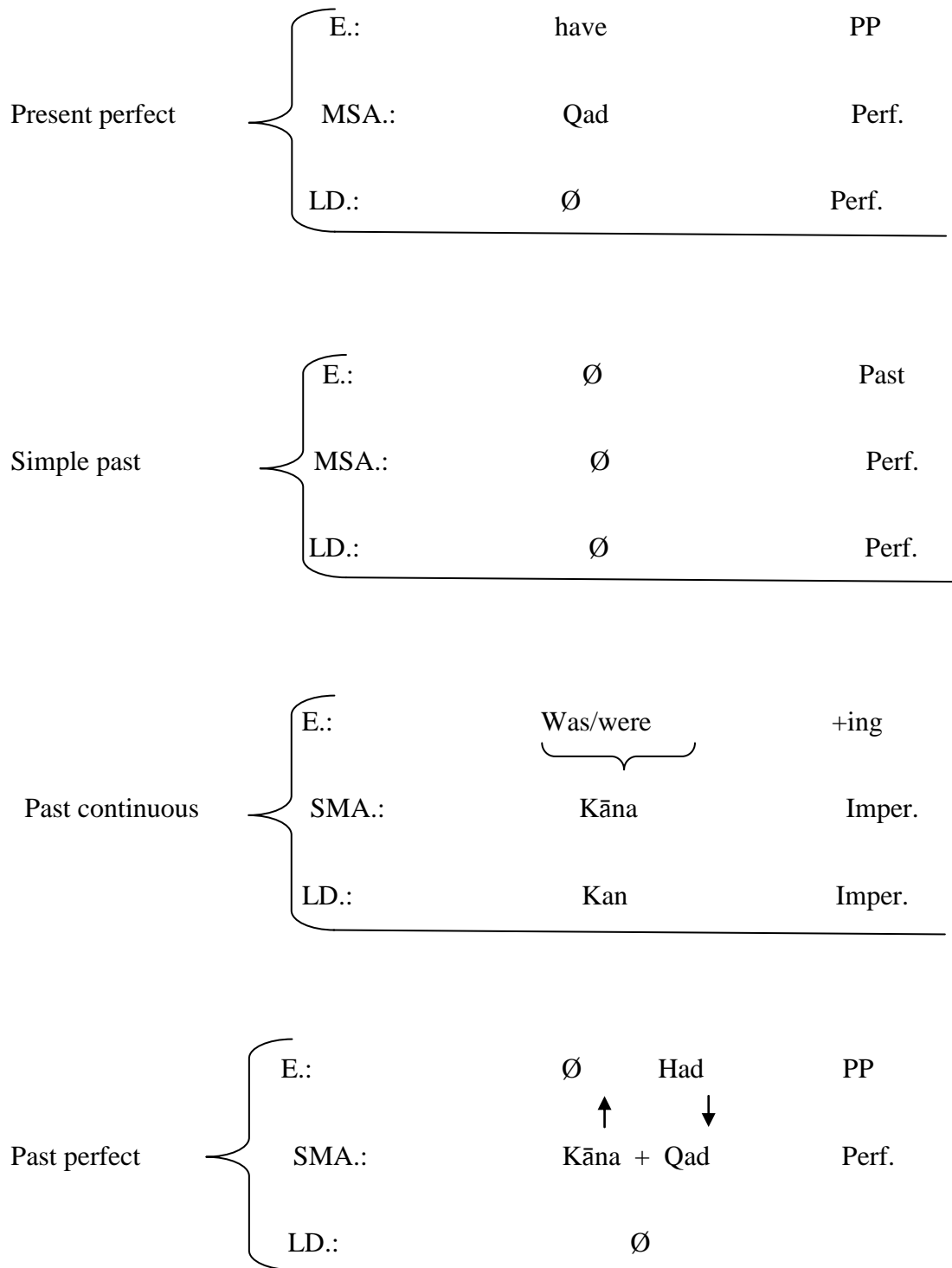
The diagram below summarises the structure and verb state of tense and aspect of the three language forms, (B- stands for base, Imp means present, and Perf means past):

		AUX	V
Simple future	E.:	will	B
	MSA.:	sā- /sāwfa	Imp.
	LD.:	bī- ḥa -/	Imp.

Future continuous	E.:	will + be	+ing
	MSA.:	∅	
	LD.:	ḥa-    yakun	Imp.

Future perfect	E.:	will    ∅    have	PP.
	MSA.:	sa-    yakun    Qad	Perf.
	LD.:	ḥa-    yakun    ∅	Perf.

Simple present	E.:	∅	B
	MSA.:	∅	Imper.
	LD.:	∅	Imper.



**Diagram (1) TAV Comparison in English, MSA and LD**

This structure-analysis diagram shows some similarities and differences between the structures of English tenses and aspect and those of the modern standard Arabic and

Libyan dialects. The three forms (E, MSA and LD) have the same structure for simple tenses in that there are no auxiliaries, and that for the past continuous the same auxiliary elements are used in (MSA) and (LD) which has an equivalent form in English (was/were). There is also a grammatical similarity between the English future continuous and that of the Libyan dialects in that both have auxiliaries but it is non-existent in modern standard Arabic. A similarity also appears between English and MSA in that both have present perfect.

The difference between MSA and LD on the one hand and E (English) on the other is very clear in the verb form. In MSA and LD, the verb is never affected by the auxiliary while in English it is. For example, in the present perfect and the simple past, the verb is past participle in the former due to the use of the auxiliary (has) and it is in the past form in the latter. In (MSA) and (LD), the verb is always the same, although in some cases a different part of speech may be used, i.e. participles, in MSA and more often in LD. In fact, only two verb forms are used in all Arabic tenses, present and past verb, whereas the English verb is affected by the preceding auxiliary, therefore there are four verb forms as shown in the analysis above: base, present participle, past and past participle.

The other difference is with the auxiliary particle (be) that corresponds to (yakūn) in Arabic. While the English (be) is used for continuous tenses, the Arabic (yakūn) is used for perfect tenses as well as is the case with future and past perfect. The only difference between MSA and LD is that latter never uses (qad). This could give one explanation why past perfect is not used in LD.

From a semantic point of view, similarity appears in the fact that some tenses are used for some other tenses for the same reasons. For example, the present in English

can be used to express future when the action is planned; also, this present is used for past event in historical present. This is the same with MSA and LD where the present can be used for future when the action is sure to happen, and used for the past in historical present.

The difference between English and MSA, including LD, is that in English the future tense is only used for future actions, and the past is only for past actions except in conditionals. In LD, the future can be used for past as in: *شَدُوهُ بِيحَقُّوْا عَمَاهُ لَكِنْ هَرَبَ مِنْهُم* shadūh biḥaqaqū a'mah lakīn harab minuh. The past can be used for present in 'contracts' in MSA, and in supplications in both MSA and LD.

Similarities and differences are not only between the two different languages, English and MSA, but also between MSA and its dialect 'LD' in that LD uses participles more than MSA uses them. Using participles for the simple or habitual past occurs in LD but not in MSA, but when the participle is used with (كان kan), it can express habitual past in MSA but not in LD. The present and past perfect only exist in MSA. The present verb in MSA has three moods, but no moods are used in LD.

Both English and MSA have apophonic passive. As for continuous aspect, only passive past continuous occurs in MSA, but all simple passive perfect aspect exist except the passive perfect continuous. In LD, the passive is expressed with some derived verb forms, especially verb forms (V), (VII), (IX) and (II) of quadrilateral verbs. The alternative way of expressing the passive in MSA is using the verb (تم tamma), while the alternative of the passive in LD is using the active form.

## Chapter Eight

### The Analysis of Stage Two

#### 8. 0. TAV Used by Libyan University Students

This stage of the present research aims at studying the effect of L1, mainly the dialects of Libyan university students, on the use or non-use of tense, aspect and voice (TAV) in the first place. It is proposed in this study that the effect of the L1 does not necessarily result in blocking the acquisition of a certain L2 element such as using –s of the third person or correctly using the grammatical structure, but it could result in delaying the acquisition of these elements or in the inappropriate use of a correct grammatical structure. Therefore, this study also tries to investigate at what stage TAV is acquired. The term stage here refers to four academic years.

Therefore, this section aims to answer the following research questions:

- 1- At what stage (of four stages of university level) do students learn and use the target structures?
- 2- To what extent do these structures exist in the students' written production?
- 3- How do (TAV) immerge and develop in Libyan university students' output, and to what extent does this development comply with the stages and findings of the preceding studies mentioned above? In other words, is the emergence and development of these structures affected by the property of the target language verb, (Aspect Hypothesis) or the L1 verb property?



The method used in this stage consists of two tests, story writing and picture describing. These two tests took place in the participants' classrooms and implemented and supervised by the researcher. This, actually had to take place under the researcher's supervision due to the nature of the research which requires explanations without mentioning examples to the participants, that is, the participants are meant to use these target structures (TAV) without being asked to do so. The main phenomenon investigated in this research is why students do not use some grammatical structures though they are fully aware of them. So, if the students are asked to use passive structure in their writing, for example, they can do so with a degree of easiness, but when writing or speaking in general, this structure is not used at all or is rarely used. This is why examples are not provided to the participants in the tests and the researcher had to be available to explain the task verbally and, in some cases, in the participants' dialect. In fact, the difficulty of the research lies in this principle which is how to elicit the target structures without giving examples or telling the participants to use them. However, besides the hints and explanations provided by the researcher during the conducting of the tests, the methods designed for this research direct the participants towards using TAV. I would admit that it is not guaranteed that all the target structures are expected to be used.

Besides testing the use or non-use of certain structures, these tests are also designed to answer the question of whether or not, as the Aspect Hypothesis claims, the acquisition and emergence of the TAV is governed by the L1 or L2 verb property. So, a different variety of verb classes are included in the tests, mainly story writing.

Before starting discussing the samples, it is important to show the English language background of the students as well as the details of the two tests. As mentioned in the tertiary education part (1.2.), there are three-year-English-specialised secondary

schools that have recently been introduced into the education system in Libya followed by the four-year university stage. This means that the students (participants) have a reasonable experience of around seven years of English learning experience. Thus, even the first year students are not considered to be complete beginners at learning English as they have come from an English specialised secondary school, although, some students in those English departments did not study at English-specialised secondary schools particularly some of the students in the third and fourth years. However, to make sure that the participants are fully aware of the target structures, a one-month intensive course was provided to them focusing on using tenses and voice properly. This course was carried out by the researcher himself.

As the research is carried out in Libyan universities, the students' (participants') level is determined in terms of which academic year they are at i.e. first, second, third or fourth year. The participants were chosen based on activities during the intensive course and the information gained from their other teachers.

From each class, nine participants were chosen (three low, three middle and three high participants). However, as mentioned in chapter three, the research methods, choosing three from each level is to guarantee that the continuum of levels is not interrupted by the withdrawal of some participants, so, during the data analysis, only one from each level is selected, and this selection is based on the most responses made by each participant. Therefore, there is a wide range of levels starting from first class low proficiency students to fourth class high proficiency students; that is twelve levels.

Having selected the participants, the researcher explained the task and read the texts. After reading the texts in MSA and LD and discussing the story to maximise possibility that the participants follow the sequence of the story, the test starts by giving the participants a set of pictures that tell the events of the story and a list of English verbs that could possibly be used. These pictures and verb list enhances the possibility of using all the target structures and save the participants' time researching for appropriate vocabularies. The students took about an hour and a half to complete the test.

## **8.1. Data Analysis**

As the two tests mentioned above are complementary to each other, the method or the mechanism used for the analysis is not based on the individual test, rather, these two tests will be dealt with according to the structures that are targeted. Thus, tense and aspect will be discussed first followed by a discussion of voice. The aspect is included within tense discussion. That is, the participants' responses to the passive structures in the story writing test are analysed in combination with the passive structures gained from the picture describing test.

### **8.1.1. The Analysis of Tense and Aspect**

Several steps are followed for analysing the participants' responses. First, the target structures in these responses are underlined and numbered according to their occurrence in the text in all the three language forms, English, MSA and LD, as follows:

(English) 1- When the tree were becoming green

2- And people were out enjoying the sunny day,

MSA

1- عندما كانت الأشجار تخضر *‘indamma kānit alashjar takhḍar*

2- وكانت الناس تستمتع بالجو المشمس *wa kānit al-nas tastamti’ biljaw almushmis*

(DL)

1- في يوم من ايامات الصيف والدنيا تخضر *fī yūm men ayamāt alṣyf wa adinya takhḍar*

2- كانت الناس تستمتع بالجو المشمس *wa kānit al-nas tastamti’ biljaw almshms*

The tense of the underlined sentences is determined and tabulated to be compared to the other three forms as illustrated below, (PR = participants’ responses)

	English	MSA	LD	PR
1	Past continuous	Past continuous	Past continuous	Past simple
2	Past continuous	Past continuous	Past continuous	Past continuous
3	Pa- past simple	Pa- past simple	Past simple	Past simple

**Table (9) Sample of Comparison Table of TAV Used by the Participants**

Thus, for example, according to the numbering of the sentences, the tense of sentence number three is passive simple past in both English and MSA, but it is active simple past in LD. The expected tense is should be passive simple past.

This table is now the base for further analyses such as determining the variation of the responses of the participants to one tense as well as whether or not this response corresponds with the expected English tense or to that of MSA or LD. Thus, more focused tables are made to include the various responses of each participant to the same repeated tense.

For space, symbols and numbers are used in these tables to represent the participants and tenses. The participants are referred to in the table with (1L) which stands for low proficiency level participant in the first year, (2M) stands for middle participant in the second year, (3L) stands for middle participant in the third year, and finally (4H) means high proficiency participant in the fourth year. The numbers are used to represent the tenses as follows:

- |                              |                               |
|------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1- Future perfect continuous | 7- Present perfect            |
| 2- Future perfect            | 8- Present perfect continuous |
| 3- Future continuous         | 9- Past simple                |
| 4- Future simple             | 10- Past continuous           |
| 5- Present simple            | 11- Past perfect              |
| 6- Present continuous        | 12- Past perfect continuous   |

(Note: Fre EMS = frequency of the structure in the model answer. That is, situations where simple present, for example, should be use is repeated seven times in the model answer)

First, the table below shows the responses to a tense used by all the participants. So the numbers (1) and (3) at the bottom of the second row (future perfect) means that

participant (4M) used this tense one time and the participant (4h) used it three times, the (-) means that there is no response or different tense is used. This step gives a general view of which grammatical structures are not used or which are most commonly use by the participants.

	Fre EMS	1L	1M	1H	2L	2M	2H	3L	3M	3H	4L	4M	4H
1 Future perfect	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2 Future perfect	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	3
3 Future continuous	4	-	-	2	1	-	1	-	2	-	2	1	1
4 Future simple	5	5	2	3	1	2	4	3	3	3	-	2	4
5 Present simple	7	6	4	5	7	6	5	6	5	3	5	4	7
6 Present continuous	7	1	-	6	2	1	2	2	3	-	3	1	5
7 Present perfect	7	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	1	1	-
8 Presentperfect <i>continuous</i>	4	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1
9 Past simple	6	4	1	2	3	-	4	3	4	5	2	2	5
10 Past continuous	4	1	1	3	2	-	3	2	3	-	2	2	3
11 Past perfect	4	-	-	1	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
12 Past perfect continuous	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1

**Table (10a) Frequency of Tense and Aspect Used by the Participants**

This table is meant to partially answer the question of to what the extent the L1 affects the use or non-use of English TAV. In other words, it shows whether or not the participants remember to use the target grammatical structures in the first place.

So, it is important here to mention that even the wrongly used, or the ungrammatical tenses are counted, i.e. a sentence is present perfect in the EMS, for example, and the participant used this tense in the correct place but either ungrammatical such as the misuse of the verb, or that the whole structure does not match in their text. That is, in most cases a structure emerges but it does not necessarily mean that it is mastered. This is discussed in the tables that follow later.

The shaded areas in this table make it clear that the responses centres around simple tenses in general while the other compound tenses are either not used or used by highly proficient participants only as it appears with future perfect continuous, future perfect and past perfect continuous.

The most commonly tense used correctly is the simple present where only one participant did not use it, followed by simple past, and then simple future. Among the continuous tenses, the past continuous is used more frequently than present continuous whereas the future continuous is the least frequent of the three. The perfect tense comes in the third position where fewer participants responded to it and the perfect continuous is the least frequent tense, while there is no response for the future perfect continuous, only two for past perfect continuous, and eight instances of present perfect continuous.

Regarding the level at which each structure appears, simple and continuous -but not future continuous - appear simultaneously and from the first levels, although continuous is less frequent than simple structures.

However, the frequency of the tenses and voice used by the participants does not seem to be affected by their proficiency levels. For example, the simple present is repeated seven times in the (EMS) and there are some participants at advanced levels

who are expected to use it correctly, they only used it twice whereas some other participants at lower levels used it seven times.

In order to answer the question of the level at which the target grammatical structures are mastered and then emerge in the participants' responses, the grammaticality and pragmaticity of the structures are considered. The term 'pragmaticity' here, means the proper use of a structure. For example, one participant wrote: 'I heard about him before we had met' which means that this participant is aware of the past perfect and how it is formed but does not seem to know its use. A structure is only considered ungrammatical when one of its basic components is missing. For example (3M) wrote: 'what Jane is say now', the element (-ing) is missing, therefore, this structure is ungrammatical and as such is not counted. However, 'the people was enjoying the sun', wrote by (1M), is counted since all the continuous elements are there. Also, the consistency of the tense use is considered. Present continuous, for example, is repeated seven times in the text but (1L, 1L and 1M) used it only once and used different tenses for the other six examples. In such a case, when the response is 20 per cent or less, it is deemed as non-used. This variation in responses to one structure and some other grammatical errors such as the case with (-ing) missing, mentioned a few lines above, are discussed in detail in the following sections.

The following is a similar table to that mentioned above, but only shows the correctly used tenses and aspect.



		Fre	EMMS	1L	1M	1H	2L	2M	2H	3L	3M	3H	4L	4M	4H
1	Future perfect continuous		1												
2	Future perfect		5												
3	Future continuous		4												
4	Future simple		5												
5	Present simple		7												
6	Present continuous		7												
7	Present perfect		7												
8	Present perfect continuous		4												
9	Past simple		6												
10	Past continuous		4												
11	Past perfect		4												
12	Past perfect continuous		5												

**Table (10b) the Correct Use of Tense and Aspect Used by the Participants**

Table 11b above shows that only the three simple tenses emerge right from the first levels, followed by a few examples of continuous tenses which are introduced at third level. ‘Level’ here means one of the twelve participants that are arranged from the first level (1L) to the twelfth (4H). The future continuous disappeared but reappeared at the eighth and tenth levels only whereas the present and past continuous are more or less consistent. As for the perfect tense, only one example of future perfect and one of past perfect are used while perfect continuous tenses do not

occur at all levels except the present perfect continuous which is used by the twelfth level (4H).

As mentioned earlier, some of the participants either did not respond to a tense or used different structures. The following paragraphs discuss the relationship between the other different responses on the one hand, and the modern standard Arabic or Libyan dialects on the other.

1. **Future perfect continuous.** This tense does not exist in either modern standard Arabic (MSA) or Libyan dialects (LD). In (MSA), future perfect is used instead, and the ( لي Lī) structure is used in the (LD). In the participants' responses (PR), the majority avoided this tense and others used a variety of structures. At lower levels, simple past is used and two participants, (1H and 4H), used future perfect which is the same tense as that of the (MSA). Simple future, simple present and present perfect are also used instead of future perfect continuous but only one example for each.

2. **Future perfect.** Although it exists in both (MSA) and (LD), only one participant (4H) used it, as appears in the table above, and the majority used simple future instead.

The most various responses are on the first example of the future perfect in the text. One explanation for this could be that some of the participants remember the Arabic structure which is:

ستجدونه قد غادر الى العمل satajidūnahu qad ghādarā ila al'amal (MSA)

ابتلقوه كيف طلع للعمل ibtalgūh kif ṭa'a lil 'amil (LD)

The verbs (ستجدونه satajidūnahu) and (ابتلغوه ibtalgūh) have the same meaning in both (MSA) and (LD), and they mean (you will discover/find out that). In this sense, the exact translation of both examples is (you will discover/find out that he had gone/left for work). Therefore, some participants processed the first part of the example (you will discover/find out) and used simple future while some others thought of the second part (he had gone/left) and used past perfect or simple past as in the following extracts:

He just had gone to his work. (past perfect) (1 H, 3M)

He left to his work. (past simple) (2L, 2M, 3L, 3H and 4L)

He will leave to the work. (simple future) (1L).

Another explanation, although this is applicable to all other responses, is that these responses are dependent on how the participants look at the sequences of events in the story. That is, the expression (by the time you get there) could mean that Ted's leaving to work and the talking of Jane could occur simultaneously. So, some participants thought that by the time Jane was talking to the police, Ted was out for work, so the act of leaving for work was now past as in the response of (2L, 2M, 3L, 3H and 4L) above, while others may have thought that Ted would leave when the police gets there, and therefore they used the simple future. This explanation seems to be the most possible when examining the alternative used by participants who did not use any tense such as (2H) who wrote: He is at work by now. So, this participants' perspective of the events sequence is referred to in this work as 'personal preference'.

However, apart from the fact that some participant did not respond, and only one used the correct tense, the responses to the rest of the example of this tense are in simple future.

3. **Future continuous.** As mentioned in the MSA and LD discussions, this tense is mostly expressed by participles such as (ذاهب dhahib) and (راجع Rāja'), (ماشي mashi), (امروح imrawah), therefore it is deemed to be existent in both MSA and LD. There are four situations where future continuous is expected. The first two are expressed in future continuous in both (MSA) and (LD) and simple future is used for the other two. The majority of the participants used simple future, yet some of them used future continuous and this use is restricted to those examples which have future continuous meaning in either (MSA) or (LD). At different levels (1L, 1M, 3L and 3H), the simple future is used for the four examples. These participants wrote:

- Tomorrow at this time he will go to the club.

Although they use the phrase 'Tomorrow at this time' which indicates future continuous, they use simple future.

The possible explanations for this are that the time phrase (tomorrow at this time) can be used with simple future in Arabic as in:

Ghadan fi mithli hadha alyaum sa-adhab ila  
الكلية Ghadan fi mithli hadha alyaum sa-adhab ila  
alkūliyah. Tomorrow at this time I will go to the college.

So, it is obvious that these participants viewed the time phrase as the start point of the going rather than the period during which the action is in progress. The second explanation could be the result of the rewriting of the story events in the first place. As the participants relied only on the pictures and prompts provided, some could

have thought that the going would take place at the time stated. The third reason of this use could be due to the fact that in Arabic, particularly in (LD), the simple future and future continuous are dependent on the speaker intention. The following example clarifies this:

غدوة هالوقت حنكون امروح للحوش ghūdwah hal wagit ḥankun imrawaḥ lil ḥush.

This sentence could be interpreted in many ways according to the speaker/listener interest. If the interest is in the state that will be at that time, then this sentence means (I will be at home, or I will not be at my office), but if the interest is in the action during that specific time, then it is future continuous with the meaning (I will be walking home so I will meet you later on when I get home).

This is the same thing with the examples in the text. Some participants focused on the state that will be at that time that Ted will not be at home / will be at the club at that time. Thus, a third explanation could be added here that this use of simple future is L1 influence. It is mentioned in the discussion of MSA and LD that the latter uses participles more than the former, Ageli (1989) and Mitchell (1952). It is also explained that in LD, people in most cases focus on state rather than on the action itself, so here the participants focused on the state that Ted will be at the club and not at home.

4. **Simple future.** This tense has equivalent structure in (MSA) and (LD) and is repeated four times in the text. Generally speaking, it is used correctly by almost all participants, though there are a few examples where future continuous is used. This use of future continuous is made by one participant only who, in fact, has not used simple future at all in responding to this tense. The participant used future continuous without mentioning the particular time at which the action is occurring.

So, they wrote ‘Next week we will be going to the swimming centre’. However, they used simple future for future continuous.

So, from the state-action point of view, these participants did not seem to distinguish between simple and continuous future as their focus here is on the fact that Jane and Ted will not be at home at that time. They will be out and it does not matter whether or not they reach the centre.

**5. Present simple.** Seven examples are used for this tense which is one of the most correctly answered tense where 75 per cent are correct answers. Nevertheless, present continuous and simple past are also used in some examples. The present continuous is restricted to two sentences that use the verb, (يعمل *ya'mal* = works): ‘Jane works at a club’, and ‘He works at a company’.

It could be that these sentences are looked at from different views. Some participants considered the period during which the investigation took place and referred to the working as an action occurred during the investigation, while others looked at the working as a part of a past story.

All participants used simple present for two sentences which contained stative verbs:

هو يحب السباحة      Huwa yuḥib alsibaḥah.      He loves swimming.

فهي مؤمنة      Fahya mu-minah.      She believes.

**6. Present continuous.** This tense does not have a marker in Arabic and therefore it is marked as non-existent in both (MSA) and (LD). Participles are mostly used (ذاهب *dhahib* = going). It is only the context that determines whether or not the verb is in progress as discussed in the Libyan dialects section. It is also explained that all the

pragmatical tenses, tenses that do not physically exist, will be included, so, seven examples are expected to be used for this tense. The responses to these examples vary between simple present, mostly, and present continuous, besides a few sentences in simple past. In fact, this variation does not seem to follow a certain pattern; rather, the simple present and the present continuous are used alternatively.

In the previous tenses discussed so far, one reason for the tense variation is attributed to perspective. That is, some participants viewed the story as a past story and used past tense while others used present tenses. In this case, the verb is avoided and a different structure is used, though it is provided to the participants. There are two possible reasons for this, either it is the verb per se that makes the participants avoid it, or it is the L1 effect. The first reason, the verb (hide), is less likely to be the reason as this verb is repeated in another sentence and used even by those who avoided it in the first example. The second reason, L1 effect, could be the reason of the variation of all responses to all present continuous examples in that the non-existence of the present continuous in the participants' L1 makes the majority of them use different structures instead. This explanation could partially be supported by the fact that some of the participants do not use present continuous at all. However, this latter reason remains as a possible explanation until the other non-existent tenses are discussed later on to see if this is applicable to all those tenses.

The responses to the sentences varied between simple present, continuous and simple past. The simple past is mainly used with the verb (say) in:

- الواقع عكس ماتقولہ جين الان Alwāqi' 'akis mataqūlahū Jane al-ān. The truth/reality is opposite to what Jane is saying now.

Most of the answers are:

- The fact is opposite to what Jane said now.

As it appears in the responses, the participants used the past verb (said) with the adverb of time (now). This means that they look at the action, Jane is saying, as present perfect which in turn is expressed in simple past, (discussed next). This use of (now) will be included in the discussion of the present perfect below.

**7. Present perfect.** As mentioned in the Libyan dialects, this tense has a marker in (MSA). It is used for emphasizing the occurrence of the action. In other cases, simple past is used instead in both (MSA) and (LD) and it is only the text that determines this tense. For example, the sentence: احد ما سرق المجوهرات Aḥadin mā saraq almujawharāt, is simple past but when translated into English, it has to be in the present perfect.

The responses are mainly simple present and simple past besides very few examples of present perfect and past perfect. The simple past is used mainly for the first sentence and the simple present is for the fourth one. These sentences are as follows:

The most common responses are:

- (1) – Someone stole the jewellery.
- (4) – The police know Ted.

The expected answer is: (1) - someone has stolen the jewellery, (4) - The police have known Ted for many years.

In fact, the tense of the first answer is simple past, and the tense of the second (4) is simple present in both (MSA) and (LD). However, the verb (know) and the context in which it is used in sentence four seem to have an impact on the tense used. The verb (know) per se is discussed in the simple past (number 9) where it is used in a



different situation. What is meant by context or the situation here is that the use of the present perfect or even the simple past for indicating state of mind at the present, including the verb (يعرف ya'raf), equivalent to (know), is not possible in LD where only simple present is used in this sense. For example:

- انا انحب الهدوء من لما اصغير . Anā inḥib alhudu men lamma iṣghayr.
- انا نعرف الرجل من ايام لقرايا Anā n'rif alrājil men ayām legrāya.

The responses to the other sentences vary between using simple present, simple past, present perfect and past perfect. This variation would further enhance the claim that various tenses are used in reply to a tense whenever that tense is non-existent in the (MSA) or (LD).

**8. Present perfect continuous.** This tense is marked non-existent in (MSA) and (LD) though in (LD) a (لي Li) structure is used and it is translated as perfect continuous.

The participants' responses are various and not only in tense but also in verbs used. The most repeated verb is (spend), literal translation of the Arabic verb (قضى qaḍā), although this verb 'spend' is not provided to the participants. The tenses used are (the most frequent first) simple past (using the verb spent), simple present, present perfect continuous and past perfect, present perfect, past continuous, and past perfect continuous. The correct tense 'present perfect continuous' is used four times by three participants. (2H) and (3M) used it once out of the four and (4H) used it twice. This, in fact, means that these participants are aware of this tense and how it is used, but they did not use it consistently.

It would initially be suggested that it is either the context or the L1 influence that affects the use of the tense. The first possibility, the context, stems from the fact that three of the four correct responses are on the same sentence. Nevertheless, this possibility is yet untenable in that the two examples or sentences in the text have the same context. For example, there is no contextual difference between (We have been living together for many years) and (He has been working there for many years) to which some participants replied using different tenses. The second suggestion is the L1 influence. This suggestion imposes the hypothesis that when a structure is non-existent in the mother tongue, and therefore it does not emerge in the learner's production, different structures are used as alternatives.

**9. Simple past.** As is the case with other simple tenses, this tense exists in both (MSA) and (LD). Seven examples are included to represent it; however, one of them could be in the simple present because of the semantic property of its verb, (يعرف ya'rif) means (know). As mentioned in (section 5.2), verbs such as (يعرف ya'rif = know, يعتقد y'ataqid = think, يفهم yafham = understand) are usually used in the present in (LD). Furthermore, some do not have past form in (LD) such as (يحساب yiḥsāb), the dialectical form of the verb (يعتقد y'ataqid = think). For past actions, (كان kan) usually precedes the verb (يعرف ya'ref). The following are examples for these two particular verbs:

- امس نحسابا عطلة ما مشيتش للجامعة Amis niḥsaba 'ūṭla ma mashytish liljāmi'a.

Literally translated (Yesterday I think is holiday so I did not go to the university).

- صديقي كان يعرف ان الجمعة مش عطلة Ṣadiqi kan ya'rif ina al juma'a mish 'ūṭla. My friend knew that Friday was not a holiday.

In most cases, this verb (يحساب yiḥsāb) indicates past actions though, as mentioned, it is morphologically present.

Another instance where a present verb is used with past meaning is when it is preceded by the particle (ان an) after (قبل qabal). (ان an) is mentioned in (section 4.2.2.4) with the meaning of (if) as in the example provided in that section ‘ ان عدتم ‘ ان عدنا in ‘utum ‘udna’. In fact, this particle, (ان an), has many uses such as the one that has already been mentioned, but one that is concerned here its use that (ان an) is used when a verb is required to follow a particle, Buckley (2004). In (LD), (ما mā) is used instead of (ان an) as in:

- كتب واجبه قبل ما يطلع من المدرسة. Katab wājba qabal mā yaṭla’ men almadrasa.

He wrote his homework before he left/leaving the school.

In this construction, the verb after these two particles is usually in the present form as in:

- كتب واجبه قبل ان يغادر المدرسة. Kataba wājibahū qabal an yūghadir almadrrasah.

He wrote his homework before he left the school.

The participants’ responses also varied between simple past and present, although the majority used simple past. In responding to the sentences with the verb (يعرف ya’rif), only one participant used the past while the others used simple present.

In addition, there is another instance of variation which occurred for a sentence that has a past verb (remember). Almost 50 per cent of the responses are in simple present. Some participant use the past for the verb that follows this verb (remember) which, in turn, indicates that the participants are really viewing the event as a past one. They wrote: - \*At this moment Peter remember and screamed. What makes this

use really peculiar, in this context, is that even in (LD) the verb (تفكر remembered), is always in the past when used for an unintentional process. In (LD), the present form (يفكر ifakar) is usually used with a different meaning (think) as in:

- تفكرا في المشكلة - Infakir fi almūshkila. (present verb form) Means ‘I think about the problem / I am thinking about the problem.

However, when it is affixed with the sound (ت it-), it means (still remember) as in:

- اتفكر في الباب لما طاح؟ itafakar fi ilbāb lamma tāḥ? Means = Do you still remember when the door collapsed?

It is mentioned in the discussion of MSA ‘Chapter Four’ and LD ‘Chapter Five’ that the verb form (VII) has a reflexive meaning and is usually used in passive constructions. However, in order not to confuse the verb form (VII) with this verb, the verb prefixed with (ت it-) here does not belong to that derived verb form. (ت it-) are dialectical prefixes that forms the present verb (Chapter Five).

**10. Past continuous.** Four examples are used in the text. In many cases the correct structure is used by the participants. Most of these correct responses focus on two examples, (يستمتعون yastamti’ūn = enjoying) and (ترتدي tartadi =wearing) in:

- The people were enjoying the sunny day.
- The woman was wearing the night dress.

On the other hand, the most variation occurred with the sentence attached to the first one, in the example above. So, the two sentences are:

- During the summer days when the tree were becoming green and the people were enjoying the sunny day, .... .

The majority of the participants' responses are as follows:

- During the summer days when the tree became green and the people were enjoying the sunny day, .... .

Only two participants used the past continuous for the first clause (the trees were becoming green) and others used simple present. All this could suggest another factor that plays a role in the use of tenses, this being semantic property of the verb. The question that is raised here is: 'is it the semantic property of the L1 or the L2 verbs that affects the use of its tense?'

11. **Past perfect.** This tense exists in (MSA) and its marker is ( كان قد kāna qad) followed by past verb form; nevertheless, and (as mentioned in the (LD) analysis, pragmatically, simple past is more frequently used. Four examples are expected to be used. However, simple past is also possible in some cases as in the examples used in the text:

- I had heard about him before we met two years ago. (Past perfect)
- I heard about him before we met two years ago. (Past simple)

It has been suggested above that when a tense is non-existent tenses in (MSA) and/or (LD), the responses are usually various and many different tenses are used. In this case, it seems to be different in that the number of tenses used and the frequency of the alternative tenses are not as various as those tenses are. 90 per cent of the participants' responses are in simple past, few instances of simple present and four sentences in the past perfect. The simple present is used four times. This use could possibly be attributed to the fact that in Arabic, mainly (LD), simple present is used

for that verb (يسمع ysmā' = hear) to indicate past actions, though simple past is commonly used:

- نسمع بيه قبل مانلاقو Nisma' bih qabal mantalāgu. (present simple)
- سمعت بيه قبل مانلاقو Sama'it bih qabal mantalāgu. (past simple)

The participant (2L), besides using the past perfect correctly twice, uses the simple present for the sentence consisting of (يسمع ysmā'), and the simple past tense for the other sentence. Thus, although this participant is aware of the accurate use of the past perfect in such contexts, they use the simple present for the verb (يسمع ysmā') which could be used in either the present or the past in LD, i.e. personal preference! Another explanation of using simple past could be due to the fact that in most cases, and as mentioned earlier, simple past is used in the (LD) instead of past perfect.

**12. Past perfect continuous.** This does not exist in (MSA). Simple past is used in the (MSA) while in the (LD) (لي Li) structure is used besides simple past. There are four situations where this tense is expected to be used.

In the participants' responses, the target structure is used twice only and by the advanced level only. Five other tenses are used including simple present, present perfect continuous, simple past and past perfect. The most frequent tense used among these is the simple past (15) out of (48).

Apparently, it seems that the only explanation of this diverse tense use, as mentioned many times before, could possibly be due to the non-existence of the past perfect continuous equivalent in the (MSA) and (LD).

### 8.1. 2. The Analysis of Voice

The passive discussed here occurred in the two tests, story writing and picture describing. The former focuses mainly on the aspect structure while the latter deals with the simple structures. This is due to the fact that some structures such as passive present and past perfect cannot be elicited by using a picture.

As is the case with the previous test, a full explanation is provided to the participants without giving examples and the researcher is also available during the conduct of the test for further explanation when needed.

Seven sentences are expected by the participants as there are some repeated structures with some having more than one alternative. The following are the model answers:

- |                                     |                                    |
|-------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1- Passive past simple -            | The fence was fixed yesterday.     |
| 2- Passive past simple –            | The doors were fixed yesterday.    |
| 3- Passive past simple -            | The chimney was fixed last week.   |
| 4- Passive present continuous -     | The car is being repaired now.     |
| 5- Passive present perfect -        | The garden has just been cleaned.  |
| 6- Passive future simple -          | The window will be fixed tomorrow. |
| 7- Passive present continuous -     | The house is being painted now.    |
| (or) – Passive present continuous - | The painting is being done now.    |

Besides these seven sentences, there are eight structures elicited in the story writing test. These are: passive future perfect, passive simple future, passive simple present, passive present continuous, passive present perfect, passive simple past, passive past continuous, and passive past perfect.

Also, the same mechanisms that followed for the previous test analysis are maintained here, so, first a table showing the frequent use of the passive is presented

followed by another similar table showing the correct use of passive, i.e. the grammaticality of the responses is considered in this table. Finally, comments are drawn for each structure. The major obstacle in this section in particular is the grammaticality of the participants' responses.

Doughty and Williams (1998) say that in order for a structure to be passive, three elements must exist in their subjects' responses, (be) or (get), the past participle form of the verb, and the patient has to be the subject. Sometimes, these three elements are interrupted and, therefore, it is often not easy to determine the tense or even the type of error of the response. For example, a sentence like, (*\*all the fence has fixed since yesterday*) could have two explanations. It could be an attempt at using the passive as the subject is the recipient but the verb (be) is misused, or it could be the effect of the Arabic structure (كل الجسر تم اصلاحه منذ امس Kūl aljisir tamma iṣḥāḥuh mindhū ams) means (the whole fence had been repaired yesterday). Another participant used the verb (finish) which means (تم tamma) in Arabic, instead of (has) in the previous example, and if this sentence is grammatically compared to the Arabic equivalent structure, it perfectly matches:

*The fence	finished	fixed	in the	yesterday
↓	↓	↓		↓
السياج	تم	اصلاحه		امس
Alsiyāj	tamma	iṣḥāḥuhu		ams

(The order of the Arabic sentence is reversed for explanation purposes)

However, these responses are distinguished from the ungrammatical use of passive such as in (Painting has fixed now) where only the verb (be) is missing. This use of the passive is termed 'middle structures' (MS). So, middle structures are those closer



to the English passive but missing the (be) verb which makes it similar to the Arabic passive structure.

So, in order for a response to be marked as a passive-attempt use, two of the three elements must exist, otherwise, it is considered ungrammatical and excluded.

The following table shows the distribution of the passive use regardless of the grammaticality. This is to show the extent to which the participant used the passive, i.e. partially answers the existence-nonexistence hypothesis.

Voice	Fre													
	EMS	1L	1M	1H	2L	2M	2H	3L	3M	3H	4L	4M	4H	
1 Future perfect continuous	0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2 Future perfect	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3 Future continuous	0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
4 Future simple	7	4	-	4	-	1	2	2	3	2	-	-	-	3
5 Present simple	7	4	2	1	1	-	1	3	1	-	-	-	-	-
6 Present continuous	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
7 Present perfect	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	2
8 Present perfect continuous	0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
9 Past simple	7	2	4	1	-	-	3	1	5	-	-	4	3	-
10 Past continuous	4	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
11 Past perfect	5	-	-	1	-	2	-	1	-	2	-	-	1	-
12 Past perfect continuous	0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

**Table (10c) Frequency of Voice Used by the Participants**

As seen in this table, the use of voice is very low and it is scattered throughout the levels. This means that its use is not consistent. For instance, the simple past is used in the first level and the advanced levels while it disappears in the middle levels. As far as the passive emergence is concerned, it is clear from the table that the simple tenses appeared first followed by perfect tenses and then continuous tenses. So, the passive use does not follow the same pattern as that of the tense and aspect shown the table (11a). The difference here is that the perfect tenses come before continuous tenses. That is, simple tenses, then perfect and then continuous tenses.

The main theme of this table is to see whether or not the participant use the passive, and it is clear now that voice is used in most levels but not consistently.

The following table shows the levels at which voice is mastered and used properly, therefore, the grammaticality of the responses is taken into consideration and only correctly and properly used structures are counted.

The percentages and frequency of each tense used is another factor that is used in tense analysis which is also considered here. For example, passive simple present which is used only one time out of seven by (1H) means that, although this participant is aware of this tense and knows how to use it, they have not mastered it yet.

Voice	FMS													
		1L	1M	1H	2L	2M	2H	3L	3M	3H	4L	4M	4H	
1 Future perfect	0													
2 Future perfect	3													
3 Future continuous	0													
4 Future simple	7													
5 Present simple	7													
6 Present continuous	3													
7 Present perfect	7													
8 Present perfect cont.	0													
9 Past simple	7													
10 Past continuous	4													
11 Past perfect	5													
12 Past perfect cont.	0													

**Table (10d) The Correct Use of Voice Used by the Participants**

As is clear from the table, the proper use of the passive is very scarce and limited to simple tenses. It is also clear that it does not seem to be affected by the level or follow a certain pattern. For example, the simple present is used by lower levels but not by the advanced levels and each participant used only one structure of the passive. Interestingly, some participants used the passive grammatically correct but contextually incorrect as is the case with (1H), (2L) and (4H) who did not use the passive simple future in its proper place but they used it grammatically correct in different places.

Thus, this misplaced use of the passive could suggest another factor which is: the process of proceduralisation could occur on form or/and use only. That is, a learner could learn the use and form of a certain rule but they manage to proceduralise the use but not the form, i.e they know that in this situation present perfect is needed, but they do not know how it is formed. In this case avoidance is more likely to be the reason of non-use. If the learner manages to proceduralise the form but not how it is properly used, they use that form but not in its proper place as is the present case.

The following are comments on the individual structures and how they are used as well as what alternative are used by the participants.

1. **Passive future perfect.** Only three examples are mentioned in the model sentences. The responses to this tense are similar to those of the active future perfect discussed in the tense section in that all the participants used simple future instead of future perfect, but both the passive and active structures are used here. This variation between using the active or the passive structure does not seem to follow a certain pattern.

2. **Passive simple future.** Three common structures are used in response to this example, these are, active simple future (19) example out of (84), passive simple future (14), and middle structures (7). It is mentioned in the introductory paragraph of this section that the passive is marked by three basic elements: (be), (past participle) and the patient is in the subject possession. It is also mentioned that the difference between the ungrammatical passive and the middle structure (MS) is determined by the number of passive elements used in a response, especially when the (be) is not used, because this makes the whole structure closer to the (MS). The following responses clarify all this:

1- I am sure you will arrested. (Ungrammatical passive structure).

2- The windows will fix tomorrow. (Middle structure, future).

In the second sentence, the verb (be) is missing which makes the structure perfectly match the (MS) as follows:

The windows will fix tomorrow (النوافذ تحصلح غدوة) Alnawāfid ḥatiṣalaḥ ghudwa

What is noticeable here is that these three grammatical structures, active, passive and MS, are not restricted to a particular example or a particular participant. Moreover, some participants used the three structures which mean that although they know the structure and use of the passive, they also used the active and MS as well.

**3. Passive simple present.** The Libyan-dialect analysis discussion revealed some important types of passive simple present within the (LD) on the one hand, and some important semantic differences between the (LD) and the English language on the other. These types and differences are taken into consideration and included in the test in which five examples are used for this passive structure. One of these differences is that some sentences are semantically and grammatically past in the (MSA) and (LD) but they are present (in some cases present perfect) in the English model sentences, and some others are semantically future in (MSA) and (LD) but simple present in model sentences. For example, the sentence:

- العمل اتأخذ Al ‘amal itākhid. (LD, semantically and grammatically in the past)

Means, The job is lost. Or, the job has been lost (Present/ present perfect in English)

- لما تنتسى القضية Lamma tintasā alqaḍia. (LD, semantically future, but grammatically present). Means (when the case is forgotten) (Present in English).

Although the first sentence in the (EMS) is always past in the (MSA) and (LD), five structures are used in the responses. These are: passive simple present, passive present perfect, passive simple past, simple past, and passive past perfect. Moreover, a similar sentence: السيارة بيعت *Alsayārah bī'at* (MSA), السيارة انباعت *Alsayāra inbā'it* (LD) = the car is sold, has got identical responses.

Some other participants use the simple past, others use passive past perfect. One participant, (4H) the most advanced in the continuum, used passive present perfect. Apparently, there is no reason for using the passive past perfect as this use does not match in the participant's text.

Simple future 'both active and passive' is used by the participants when talking and the sentence (لما تنتسى القضية *Lamma tintasā alqaḍia*), means 'when the case is forgotten' instead of using the expected tense 'passive simple present'.

In most responses, the sentences (\*Peter is prisoner) or (Peter is in jail) are used. Few participants used the target structure, passive simple present 'Peter is imprisoned /jailed'.

Thus, a wide variety of structures are used for this passive structure.

**6. Passive present continuous.** This tense does not exist in either (MSA) or (LD). In most cases, passive simple present is used in responding to this tense, but the target structure is not used even as responses to other sentences.

**7. Passive present perfect.** The most common tense used by the participants is passive simple past. Some other tenses are also used such as the passive past perfect, passive simple present and active simple present. As is the case with other tenses, the responses' variation does not seem to be governed by a particular sentence or a

participant which make it hard to predict the reason for using a certain tense. The correct tense is used twice only, and by (4H) only.

8. **Passive Simple past.** The passive and active structures of the past are used in the responses, (27.38 %) and (22.61%) respectively, besides four other different tenses some of which are used two or three times only.

9. **Passive past continuous.** Again, this tense exists in (MSA) and its marker (كان Kāna) + passive present verb. In (LD) the active structure is used. In the test text, four sentences are expected. However, there are two attempts to use the passive past continuous by (4H), the most advanced level in the continuum. These are as follows:

- \*When Jane was questioning by the police.
- \*When he arrived, his thing were been putting away.

Apart from these two attempts, passive continuous is not used at all, rather, the passive simple past is the most frequent tense. The active counterpart is also used although not as frequent. So, the variation of the tenses used in this particular example is less than that of the previous two tenses.

10. **Passive past perfect.** This tense exists in (MSA) and is marked by (كان قد Kāna Qad) followed by a passive verb, but sometimes the particle (قد Qad) is omitted making the structure appears as passive past simple. In (LD), this tense does not exist and the active simple past is used.

In the participants' responses, the passive structure is the most frequently used (58.33%), and in particular the passive simple past is the most frequent among these passive structures (62.85 %). Moreover, the target structure, passive past perfect, is used eight times 'considering the ungrammatical responses as well'.

Commonly between all the passive structures that have been discussed is that in most cases the variations of the responses do not seem to be regular or follow a fixed pattern. In addition, some suggestions, such as personal preference, L1 influence, complexity and cognitive ability, can be the possible explanations for some of those variations.

## **8.2. Conclusion**

Generally speaking, the participants' responses to TAV are around simple tenses whereas aspect is commonly used by highly proficient participants. It has also been revealed that there is a wide range of variety in the responses and there are some suggested explanations for this variety. These suggestions are: complexity, cognitive ability, L1 influence, and personal preference. In some cases, a certain structure is used grammatically correct but in the wrong place. In other terms, the structure is learned but not mastered which raises another suggestion that the process of proceduralisation can be on the form or/and use only.

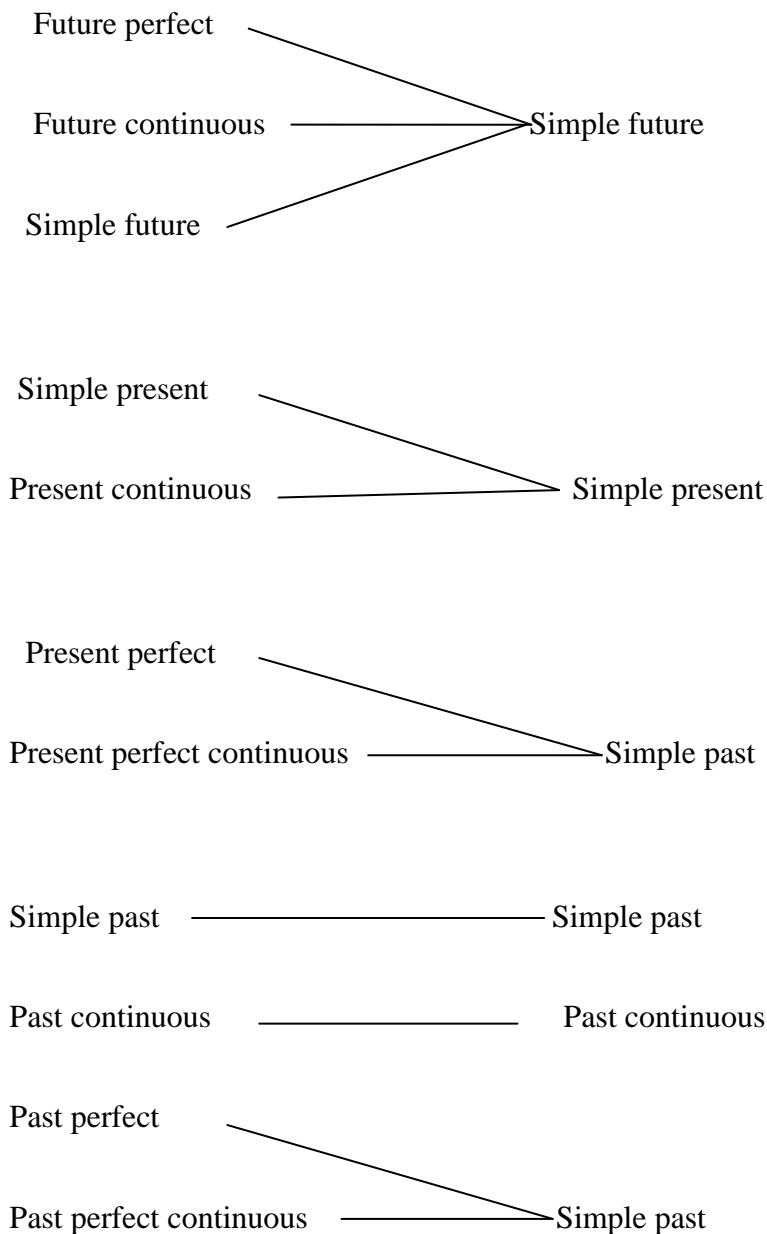
Regarding the use and emergence of tense and aspect, simple tenses appeared first and from the first levels followed by few examples of continuous tenses which appeared at the third level, and then emerged the perfect tenses which are restricted to future perfect and past perfect and by advanced levels only. The compound structures, the perfect continuous did not emerge at all levels. This means that some other structures are used instead as is the case with simple future which is used instead of future perfect.

The following diagram summarises the tenses and how they were used by the participants. As mentioned in the main section of stage two analysis, there are



various responses to one tense, however, only the most frequent will be mentioned here. For example, there are many forms used as a response to present continuous such as simple present and simple past besides the present continuous itself. The most frequent tense used is the simple present, so this tense is marked as an alternative of present continuous and mentioned in this summary.

Future perfect continuous is avoided. The majority of the participants avoided using this structure or used another structure instead.



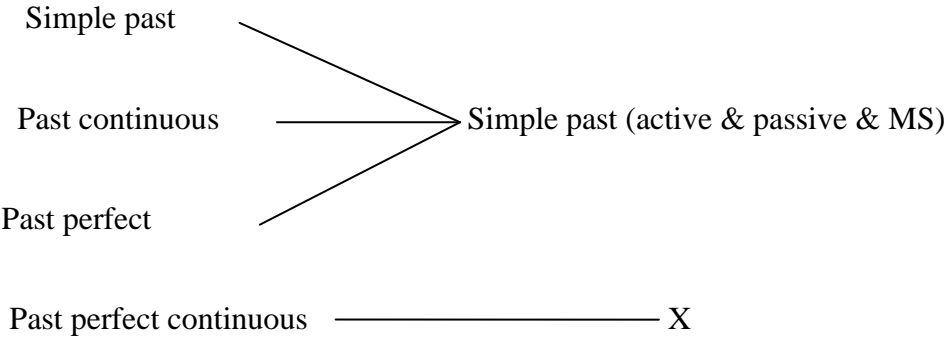
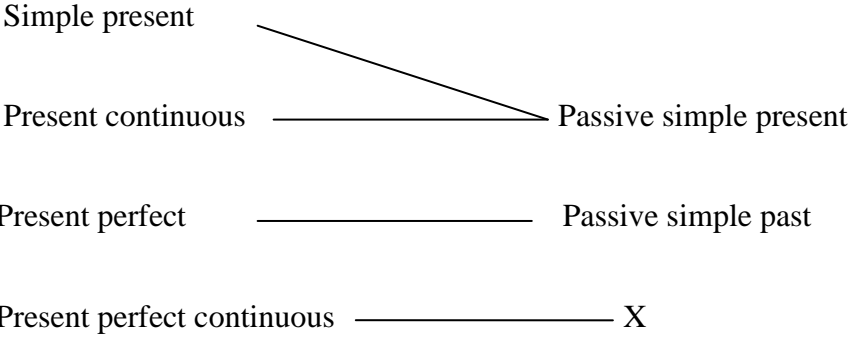
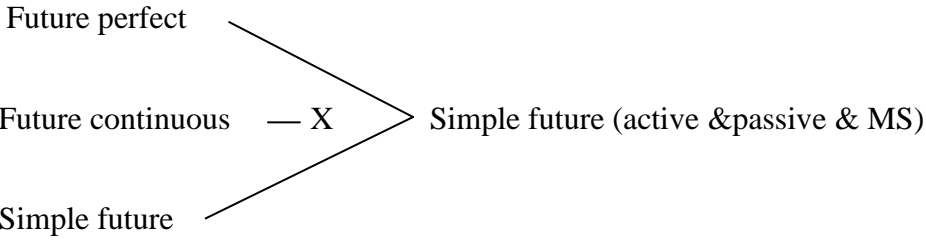
Thus, as seen above, the future tenses are funnelled into simple future whereas the present is split into two. Simple and continuous are represented by the simple present and the perfect and perfect continuous are represented by simple past. This simple past is also used for past perfect and past perfect continuous besides the simple past itself. The past continuous remains the same.

Three different grammatical structures are used for the passive: the active form, the middle structure (MS) and the passive but this passive is the least frequently used. The difference between the (MS) and the ungrammatical passive is determined by the number of the passive elements used in the structure where two of the three passive elements should exist in order for the structure to be ungrammatically passive, otherwise, it is (MS) because its syntactic structure is closer to Arabic external passive than it is to the English passive.

Similar to the findings of tenses and aspect, passive simple tenses emerged first and they are more or less properly used whereas the passive aspect, perfect and continuous, come in at later levels and are scarcely used, if at all. Also, passive is not consistent and in some cases the structure is grammatically correct but wrongly used, i.e. it does not match in the context. The active counterpart is used even when the agent is unknown, therefore such use is termed ‘activised’ form by which the participant uses the pronoun ‘they’ to refer to the doer although this doer could be one person.

The following diagram gives a general view of how each tense or aspect is represented by the participants, however, in most cases, the active, the (MS) and the passive forms are equally used to represent one tense.

Future perfect continuous ——— X



So, it is now clear that there is a degree of similarity between tense and aspect on the one hand, and passive use on the other. Future tense and aspect are represented by the simple future, but both the active and passive forms are used. The present tense and aspect are also split between the present and the past, and finally, the past tense and aspect are all represented by the simple past.

It has also been found that there is a range of variety of responses used for TAV with some suggestions provided as explanations for this variety. These suggestions are: complexity, cognitive ability, L1 influence, and personal preference.

The following is a summary of the findings:

- 1- TAV used by the participants centres around simple tenses whereas aspect is commonly used by highly proficient participants. Passive continuous forms have never been used.
- 2- Simple tenses appeared first and from the first levels followed by a few examples of continuous structures. The compound structures, the perfect continuous do not emerge at all levels when considering the correct use.
- 3- Future tenses are all expressed by simple future.
- 4- Present is split into two, simple and continuous are represented by the simple present and the perfect and perfect continuous are represented by simple past.
- 5- Simple past is used for past perfect and past perfect continuous besides the simple past itself. The past continuous remains the same.
- 6- Three different structures are used for the passive: the active form, the middle structure (MS), the passive.
- 7- Similar to the findings of tenses and aspect, passive simple tenses emerged first and are more or less properly used, whereas the passive aspect, perfect and continuous, come in later levels and are scarcely used, if at all.
- 8- Passive is not used consistently and in some cases the structure is grammatically correct but wrongly used, i.e. it does not match the context.
- 9- In many cases, activation occurs. This is when the active counterpart is used even when the agent is unknown by which the participant uses the pronoun 'they' to refer to the doer although this doer could be one person. MS

structures are also used and these two forms do not seem to be affected by a certain rule or a particular situation.

- 10- There is a degree of similarity between passive and tense and aspect in that passive future structures are expressed by simple future, and the passive present tense and aspect are also split between the present and the past, and finally, the passive past tense and aspect are all represented by the simple past.
- 11- The Arabic semantic properties of the verb seem to have some effect on the tense use in English.
- 12- The most various responses are usually on the structures that do not exist in (LD).

## **Chapter Nine**

### **Comparison and Contrast of the Two Stages**

This chapter compares and contrasts the findings of Stage One and Stage Two to see which of the suggestions mentioned in Chapter Seven are behind the various responses.

Four tests are used in this study, two are used in the first stage for investigating the existence and use of TAV in Libyan dialects (LD), and how different TAV is from the modern standard Arabic (MSA). The other two are used in the second stage to investigate the existence and use of the English TAV by teacher faculty students in Al-jabal Algharbi University in Zintan town. This is to see the effect of the TAV of the participants' L1 on their learning, acquisition and production of TAV when they write in English.

#### **9.1. Comparison and Contrast of the Stage One and Stage Two Findings**

As expected, these two stages have shown some similarities and differences between (MSA) and (LD) as compared to the participants' responses (PR) on using the English TAV.

First, a table of the TAV as is found out by the four tests is inserted followed by a general discussion of this table, then each of these tenses are discussed separately. As seen in the table, some tenses do not exist in (MSA), (LD) or (PR), so, these tenses will be ignored during this discussion. Based on this comparison, a conclusion is drawn at the end of this chapter.

As is performed in these two stages where the tenses are discussed one by one, in this chapter also the TAV is dealt with tense by tense mentioning how each tense is

used in all (MSA), (LD) and (PR). This step attempts at finding out the subtle similarities and differences between these three language forms in using TAV and then finding out which of the suggestions mentioned in the data analysis are more likely to be the reason for using or avoiding TAV by the participants, in particular, to what extent L1 affects the use of TAV.

Before commencing this, it is important to mention that the focus here is on the TAV that is actually used in (LD). During the analysis of Stage One, three language forms are compared and contrasted. These three language forms are English language, modern standard Arabic (MSA) and Libyan dialects (LD). In this chapter, the participants' responses are compared and contrasted to MSA and LD. The three language forms, therefore, are modern standard Arabic MSA, Libyan dialects LD and participants' responses PR. This latter language form represents the English structures of TAV as used by the participants.

		MSA	LD	PR
1-	Future perfect continuous	-	-	-
2-	Future perfect	+	-	-
3-	Future continuous	-	+	-
4-	Simple future	+	+	+
5-	Simple present	+	+	+
6-	Present continuous	-	-	+
7-	Present perfect	+	-	-
8-	Present perfect continuous	-	-	-
9-	Simple past	+	+	+
10-	Past continuous	+	+	+
11-	Past perfect	+	-	-

12-	Past perfect continuous	-	-	-
13-	Passive Future perfect continuous	-	-	-
14-	Passive Future perfect	+	-	-
15-	Passive Future continuous	-	-	-
16-	Passive Future simple	+	-	+
17-	Passive Present simple	+	-	+
18-	Passive Present cont	-	-	-
19-	Passive Present perfect	+	-	-
20-	Passive Present perfect continuous	-	-	-
21-	Passive past simple	+	-	+
22-	Passive past continuous	+	-	-
23-	Passive past perfect	+	-	+
24-	Passive past perfect continuous	-	-	-

**Table (11) Comparison of the TAV in MSA, LD and PR**

Generally speaking, with regard to tense and aspect, the table shows that there is a degree of similarity between (LD) and (PR) on the one hand, and similarity between (LD) and (MSA) on the other. The remarkable thing here is the present continuous which, although it does not generally exist in (MSA) and (LD), it does exist in (PR). Concerning voice, the (PR) is similar to (MSA) in that some structures of the apophonic passive, particularly simple tenses, are used while no such passive structures exist in (LD). Also remarkable here is the use of passive past perfect. It is the only passive aspect used by the participants.

However, when a tense or an aspect is marked minus in this table, it does not mean that it has not been used at all, rather, and as mentioned some lines ago, only the highly frequent tenses are counted. Also, in the analysis section, it appears that some tenses are used for other tenses. In the following part, each tense in the two forms, (MSA) and (LD) are contrasted and compared to (PR) form.



**Future perfect.** In (MSA), it is (+) formed with the marker (سيكون قد sayakun qad) and used for events that will be initiated or finished at a certain point in the future. In (LD), it is marked non-existent, but different words and expressions are actually used. One of these ways of expressing future perfect is using the dialectical (ب\ح bi-/ḥa-) instead of the prefix (س sa) followed by a past verb. (قد qad) is not used. The second way is using the word (تلقى talga) which is not special for future perfect tense. However, in most cases, the whole tense is replaced by simple future as seen in the conversation recordings. The following are extra examples:

- لما اتخشوا للحوش تلقوني امكمل لوراق lamma itkhushū lilḥush talgūni imkamil lawrāg.

The English equivalent is future perfect because it means that by the time you get home I will have finished the documents, but it is considered simple future because (تلقوني talgūni) means ‘you will find me finished the documents’. It is different from ‘حنكمل لوراق ḥankamil lawrāg as in:

- لما اتخشوا للحوش انكمل لوراق lamma itkhushu lil ḥush inkamil lawrāg.

This particular structure could mean ‘when you get home, I will finish the papers’, but in (LD) use, it may also mean ‘I will have finished the papers when you get home’.

The (PR) analysis shows that the majority of participants used simple future as well as some other tense such as the simple past, but only one participant used the correct structure. One explanation is mentioned for these various responses, ‘the participants’ perception’. Another possible explanation is the L1 effect as this tense is not used in (LD) and it is usually expressed by simple future.

Actually, in terms of aspect, the difference between the (LD) and English, as it seems to be, is that in the former, the duration of the event does not seem to be important, because the focus is usually on what the state or the fact is at that time i.e. state-action point of view. This gives an explanation for why the majority of the participants use simple future but not future perfect. This claim is supported by the fact that some of them used past tense in situations where future perfect should be used, i.e. the fact or the state is that Ted is not at home and is the focus of the participant and looks at the going out as a part of the story, therefore, it is a past action.

Thus, it is very clear that the participants' perception of the action affects their tense choice. It is also clear that there is a similarity between the use of this tense in (LD) and (PR) in that simple future is used for almost all future events.

**Future continuous.** In LD, it is expressed by means of the present form of the auxiliary (كان kan) prefixed with /bi – ḥa - / and precedes some durative participles. This tense is also expressed by means of the preverb (تلقى talga) followed by participles or some verbs in the present form. So, it is marked as existent but it is restricted to certain verbs and participles. Sometimes, such participles are usually used in the present tense and it is the context that attributes it for future time as is the case with (ماشي mashi) in: 'غدوة ماشي لطرابلس Ghudwa mashi litrablis' means 'I am going to Tripoli tomorrow'. Surprisingly, the few incidents of the future continuous used in (PR) are restricted to structures that have a similar meaning to those participles which have a continuous meaning in (LD). It is mentioned in section 8.1.1 of the analysis at Stage Two that there are four situations where future continuous should be used two of which are expressed by the durative participle i.e. future continuous and the other two are expressed in simple future in LD. These few

uses of future continuous by the participants are on the two first situations, (8.1.1 – 3). Many explanations are provided for this use of simple future. The most likely explanation is that the context allows simple future. This explanation is applicable for the third and fourth expected answers (8.1.1 -3). The second most likely reason is the L1 influence as the simple future is sometimes used for future tenses in general ‘state-action view point’.

This example enhances the fact that the focus is on states or facts in that the majority of the participants used simple future with the time phrase ‘tomorrow at this time’. This time phrase, as mentioned in the analysis of this tense, can be used with simple future in (LD). So, it seems that the participants look at the fact that ‘at this time’ the action is either finished or started as in the example mentioned in future continuous (8.1.1) ‘Tomorrow at this time he will go to the club’. The participants view that the ‘going to the club’ will start at that time.

**Simple future.** It exists in the two language forms (MSA) and (LD). In some cases future continuous or simple present are also used in (LD). The simple present is used in future conditionals or when giving promises. In (PR) simple future is correctly used by all of the participants plus a few responses in future continuous, and most of this use is by one participant who used it without indicating the time at which the action will be occurring which, in turn, means that they do not seem to distinguish between simple or continuous, especially that they use simple future when responding to situations where future continuous should be used. As this use of future continuous is made by one participant only, it cannot be accounted as an example of alternative use of simple future.

**Simple present.** As is the case with simple future and later on with the simple past, this tense exists and is used in all the two language forms. In (LD), it is not represented by any other tense, but it is used for some other tenses mainly, simple future and simple past as mentioned in (6.1.2). Such use is attributed to historical present where the speaker reports past actions using simple present. It is also mentioned that some verbs, particularly stative verbs, are always in the simple present. In (PR), this tense is used correctly, but some other tenses such as present continuous and simple past are used. Initially, this use of other tenses seems to contradict the fact in (LD) where only simple present is used for present situations. This variation in (PR) could be related to personal preference in that some participants look at the fact of working as an ongoing event and others look at the working as a general fact.

The example to which the participants used present continuous in (PR) is: - جين تعمل في النادي Jane ta'mal fi alnadi 'Jane works at a club'. This sentence could also mean simple present in (LD) without any grammatical change. Thus, the participants' concepts or perception seems to have a role in choosing the tense.

**Present continuous.** It is clear from the discussion of tense and aspect in Chapter Five that these two tenses, simple present and present continuous, are used alternatively in (LD), and that present continuous is usually restricted to certain durative participles or it is only contextually distinguished.

This use is similar to the (PR) where the simple present is used more than the present continuous besides a few examples of simple past. This use of simple past is mostly used as a response to the sentences:

الواقع عكس ماتقولہ جین الان Alwāqi' 'akis mātaqūlahū Jane al-ān. The truth/reality is opposite to what Jane is saying now. But the participants used: The fact is opposite to what Jane said now.

In this case, the participants focus on the part of the investigation that has just been done or said. In other terms, the participants look at what Jane has just said, and this situation is expressed in simple past in (LD) instead of present perfect.

Hence, there seems to be a relationship between (LD) and (PR) with regard to the use of simple present and simple past instead of present continuous; however, the present continuous is also used although it is non-existent in (LD). But it is worth mentioning here that sometimes one participant uses these three tenses correctly which means that this participant knows how each of the three tenses are used i.e. he acquired the tenses. Participants' perceptions seem to be an effective reason for the tense variation in this case, especially when examining the sentence below which has various responses.

- هي تو امخبياته في جيهة من الجيهة Hiya taw imkhabiātah fi jiha min aljyh. (LD)
- هي الان تخبئه في جيهة ما Hiya al-an tukhabi'hū fi jihatīn mā. (MSA)

As is the case with the previous example with 'say', some participants look at the act of hiding as an action that has just been done, therefore it is past. Some others regard the hiding as a fact and simple present is required, while others think of it as an ongoing action and use present continuous.

This imposes the possibility that the perception could also be the result of tense variation.

**Present perfect.** It is clear from the (LD) that simple past is used instead of present perfect. So, in (LD), any past action is past regardless of its occurrence through the past time. Surprisingly, this is also the case in (PR). The majority of the participants use simple past as well as simple present. Actually, this use of the simple past and the simple present, as it appears to me, is a clear example of L1 influence. First, it is clear that simple past is used due to the fact that the concept of present perfect does not exist in the participants' perception. Secondly, the simple present is used as a response to the sentence that has the stative verb (يعرف ya'rif) meaning (know) which cannot be in the past in (LD) as seen in the LD discussion section, Chapter Five, (5.1.2).

**Simple past.** Again, simple tenses, including this one, have almost the same use in English and Arabic including LD. Simple tenses are also correctly used by the participants. Yet, as it has been mentioned in the analysis section, simple present is also used for simple past. The simple present used for the past in the sentence that contains the verb (يعرف ya'rif = know). The reason for such use is the same as is mentioned in the analysis section and also mentioned in the present perfect comparison above. Another instance where simple present is used is when responding to a sentence containing the particle (before). It is explained in both Chapter Four and Five that the verb after (قبل ان qabla ann) in MSA, and (قبل ما gabal ma, قبل لا gabal la) in LD is always in the present, and that its tense depends on the main clause. It seems that the participant uses simple present after the preposition (before) in English as well. However, at least in this study, it appears that the participants are affected by the Arabic property of this structure (قبل ان qabla ann), and (قبل ما gabal ma).

**Past continuous.** It is the only continuous tense that exists and is used in both (MSA) and (LD). As appears in the tense analysis, its use is similar to that of the English language. The (LD) analysis reveals some other information about this tense. First, there are some dialectical words that can be used with this tense such as (امحيت imḥīt) and (لما lamma) both mean (when) and (while), but these two words are not really the continuous marker as the marker (كان kāna) can be used with these words although they themselves can indicate the past continuous tense. It is also mentioned that the marker and the dialectical alternative words can be omitted and that present continuous can be used instead. Such use is attributed to the historical present where the speaker talks about past actions as if they are taking place at the time of speaking.

The (PR) analysis shows a degree of similarity between (LD) and (PR) when using past continuous for interrupted actions. The simple present is also used and this particular use cannot be ascribed to any of the explanations provided so far.

**Past perfect.** The tense analysis shows that past perfect, although it exists in (MSA), is not used and simple past is used instead in (LD). This is reflected in the conversation recordings where this tense is not used. This fact might also be the reason behind which the participants at the university use simple past as well in situations where past perfect is required.

In the discussion of voice, it appears that most of the passive tenses do exist in (MSA), they are not used in LD. In LD, different forms are used to express the passive such as using some derived verb forms that have reflexive or passive meaning ‘termed middle structure here (MS)’ or by means of using active structure with ‘they’ as the agent. Contrary to the findings of tense and aspect above where

(PR) is very much similar to (LD), the use of passive in (PR) appears to be closer to that of (MSA) more than that in (LD). However, this occurrence of passive in (PR) is only on simple tenses.

Apparently, there seems to be an impact of the (LD) on the use of passive in the form of 'activised' or 'MS' structures. In the activised structure, the pronoun used in (PR) is the plural third person pronoun 'they' which is the exact translation of that used in activised structures in (LD). Furthermore, it is mentioned that aspect, continuous and perfect structures, are not used and that simple structures are used instead. Also, the same alternative structures used for aspect are used here. For example, simple past is used instead of present perfect and past perfect. Also, this simple past, although in some examples its passive structure is used, is the alternative structure for the passive aspect.

With regard to the (MS), some participants use this structure to replace the passive in many situations. This structure is, in fact, identical to that of the Arabic structure which always results in an ungrammatical sentence. Thus, the use of (MS) could possibly stem from the complexity of the English passive structure but not necessarily L1 influence.

## **9.2. Discussion**

The present study deals with the use of tense, aspect and voice (TAV) in both MSA and LD and the effect of these grammatical structures on acquiring and using the English TAV. In particular, it deals with whether the TAV of the MSA or the LD has an effect on the use of TAV by the Libyan learners of English.



During the data analysis, some correct uses of some structures appear in the PR, some others have various responses, while some structures are not used at all. Many suggestions and questions are raised as explanations for such variety of TAV use/non-use. It could be confessed that not all of the expected structures are guaranteed to be used, but the methods used managed to direct the participants towards using most of these expected structures. Apart from this, many suggestions are imposed for the avoidance and variations of TAV use. These suggestions are: cognitive ability, complexity, perspective and L1 influence. Actually, and in most cases, there is no a clear division line between these suggestions. For example, the complexity could be due to non-existence of the structure in L1 i.e. L1 influence or the result of complexity of grammatical structure of the English form which is complexity itself. Also, a participant may prefer to use an alternative tense ‘personal preference’ due to the complexity of the structure or due to the fact that this preference could stem from the way they view the situation ‘perspective’. In fact, these suggestions such as the cognitive ability and perspective are psycholinguistic aspects that cannot be easily and thoroughly discussed in this study. However, in the following, these reasons ‘suggestions’ are classified into two groups, personal-dependent which include the cognitive ability and perspective, and structure-dependent which include complexity and L1 influence.

**Personal-dependent suggestions.** This includes the cognitive ability of the participants and their perspective. In fact, cognitive ability could also be a potential reason that affects the presence or absence of a grammatical structure, but it is mentioned that cognitive ability is out of the scope of this study, therefore it is excluded.

Perspective could result in using another correct form. For example, one of the incidents where perspective is supposed to be effective is with the future perfect where some participants use simple future (analysis section). In this situation ‘when you reach there, he will have gone/left for work’, some participants view the leaving for work as occurring after the police arrive there, so they use simple future, while others seem to view the leaving as a past action that occurred before the police arrive there, so they have used simple past.

**Structure-dependent suggestions.** These include the complexity of the TAV and the influence of the participants’ L1. The L1 influence is fully discussed below, this paragraph discusses complexity. It is mentioned that complexity overlaps with cognitive ability and L1 influence and/or one could be the result of another. For example, L1 influences complexity in that a structure in the target language is complex because this structure does not exist in the learner’s L1 or this structure is complex because the learner’s cognitive ability is low. Rimmer (2006 23: 497) supports this latter claim saying that ‘Grammatical ability correlates highly with overall proficiency’. However, an attempt is made here to restrict the area where the role of the complexity is expected to be most effective. Two criteria are applied for classifying the target structures into simple and complex based on the two types of complexity (structure) and (meaning). These two criteria have to be applied together in order for a structure to be deemed complex. Structurally, a structure is considered complex when it has more than one grammatical element such as ‘be’ and the ‘-ing’. The semantic criterion is when the meaning of a structure is indirect. That is, it is dependent on other structures or tenses. The past perfect continuous is used here to better explain this.

(1) - I had been running.

This sentence is considered complex because it has three grammatical components, to (have) + to (be) + -ing. But, semantically, it could be simple or complex. If this sentence is used as an answer to the question ‘what had you been going?’ then it is direct and does not depend on other tenses, and therefore it is simple. If it is used to indicate the position of the action in time or how it is related to some other actions as in the example below, then it is deemed to be complex:

(2) - He asked me to go with him to the market, but because I had been running for some time, I apologised.

In fact, such classification of tense and aspect is made by Comrie (1976 and 2004) in that tense and aspect are classified into relative and absolute tense (English Tense and Aspect – Literature Review).

Thus, when applying these two criteria for highlighting the expected complex structures, and then examining the alternative or the avoided structures, complexity is believed to be affective in the compound structures such as perfect continuous tenses.

Therefore, in order for the results of this study to be as accurate as possible, avoidance and fluctuation of TAV used by the participants is excluded and the focus here is only on the alternative structures where the L1 seems to have an influence. This is done by comparing the alternative structures used by the participants. For example, it is mentioned that in MSA or LD simple past is used for present perfect, if the participants use the simple past as an alternative to the situations where present perfect is expected, the possibility of L1 influence is more likely.

The target factor in the structure-dependent suggestions is the L1 influence. It could, in fact, be effective on all these factors in that it could affect cognitive ability and complexity as the participants may find a structure complex because it is non-existent in (LD), and it could also affect perspective as is the case of the passive simple present mentioned in the voice analysis. Besides all this, L1 could also be the reason for some other phenomena discussed in the analysis section such as the phenomenon of ‘activation’. Thus, L1 influence discussed here appears to have many facets.

The first of these facets is the semantic property of the verb used. It is mentioned in the analysis section that some verbs in Arabic do not have past meaning or their past form could mean something else such as the verbs, (يعرف ya’rif) means know, يعتقد y’ataqid = think, يفهم yafham = understand). The first verb is used in the test and it shows that all the participants use the present form of the verb while the expected tense is ‘present perfect’ (The police have known Ted for many years). But the alternative expected answer from the participants is simple past as present perfect is rarely used in MSA and LD (discussed in the analysis section and repeated below). However, the participants used simple present which seems to be due to the semantic reasons mentioned in the present perfect analysis. Another example of the effect of the semantic property of the Arabic verb is shown in the use of continuous structures where it is restricted to those participles which have continuity meaning in Arabic. One of these participles is (ماشي mashi means going) of LD where the few incidents of future continuous structures used by the participants are restricted to situations that involve participles in MSA or LD. Another example of the semantic property is the use of the present verb after the preposition ‘before’ as is the case with the preposition (قبل ما gabal ma) in LD.

The second semantic facet of the L1 influence is the state-action view. In fact, part of this phenomenon is mentioned in the discussion of perspective, but the state-action view this time is about the one that seems to be influenced by L1. This state-action view is influenced by the L1 is clear in the use of simple future and future continuous alternatively. The participants use these two tenses alternatively because it seems that they do not distinguish between them as their focus here is on the fact that (Jane and Ted) will not be at home at that time not on the action they will be doing at that time i.e. they will be out and it does not matter whether or not they reach the centre. So, instead of saying (Jane and Ted will be going to the swimming centre), they said (Jane and Ted will go to the swimming centre). During the analysis of the conversation recordings, it is shown that the duration of the event does not seem to be important in that those involved in conversation recordings mention the action as a fact as in: Salem (ياخد سيارات Yakhid sayarāt). The same occurred where the participants focused on the fact that Jane and Ted will not be at home at that time instead of the action or the duration of the action that they would be doing at that time. However, in many cases this state-action view appears to be the result of perspective of the participants, as the context sometimes allows the use of different tenses. This is mentioned in the structure-dependent suggestions.

The third facet is clear in the avoidance of some tenses mainly aspect. This fact is most vivid in the use of the simple past instead of present perfect. The conversation recordings show that this tense is only used when emphasising the recentness of the action as in: - تو كيف سمعت به - *taw kif sama'it bih*. I have just heard about him – where in most cases, simple past is used. In the TAV analysis, seven examples of present perfect are included in the test but only three participants use this tense while the majority use simple present (mainly for the sentence that contained the verb

'know') and they use simple past for the rest. In fact, the tense table shown in the comparison and contrast of the Stage One and Stage Two findings in the analysis section (12) shows a degree of correlation between the tenses used in LD and those used by the participants.

The effect of the L1 on tense use does not only appear on the use of one tense instead of another, but also on the response variation. It is noticed that when a tense is non-existent in the (LD), a wide range of alternative tenses are used by the participants in responding to that tense. For example, six different tenses are used when responding to the present perfect continuous and also six others are used for past perfect continuous.

The fourth facet of L1 influence is the use of Arabic middle structures (MS) instead of some passive forms. It is explained that some participants use structures that resemble the English passive structure but are, of course, ungrammatical passive structures and more similar to Arabic middle structures. However, this use of (MS) could stem from the complexity of the English passive structures or it could also be the result of L1 influence. (MS) could be complexity-resulted if only the English passive structure is considered, but it could also be the result of L1 influence if this resulting sentence is compared to this unique Arabic structure particularly the (MS) of the Libyan dialects as mentioned in the conversation recordings analysis. A good example is used in the analysis section for illustrating the difference between the ungrammatical attempt use of the English passive structure and the use of the Arabic middle structure. The discussion of (MS) here is to find the semantic similarities and differences between the dialectical Arabic middle structure and (MS) on the one hand, and that used by the participants on the other. In fact, a simple comparison between the (MS) and the English passive structure is drawn in the introduction of

the TAV analysis, but the comparison that is made here is between the structures of the (MS) used in the conversation recordings and the ungrammatical passive attempt made by the participants.

First, three sentences are extracted from the conversation recordings to represent the three tenses, simple future, simple present and simple past. The aspect structures of the (MS) are not used, and therefore deemed non-existent.

- مش حيتفعل القضاء                      Mish ḥa yitafa'l alqaḍā
- مسائل زي هدي تنقال في الزنتان      Masa-il zai hadi tingāl fi alzintan.
- البلاد انباعت                              Alblad inba'it.

Secondly, a set of three sentences from the commonly used or repeated examples used in participants' responses is presented here to be compared to the aforementioned set.

- He will promote in May
- If the jewellery does not / not / has not found.
- The fence fixed yesterday.

First of all, it is clear that only the lexical items are used and that the grammatical elements, particularly the auxiliary verb (be), are missing. It is worth mentioning here that some of the participants use this auxiliary (be) correctly in other situations and sometimes for the same tense, i.e. almost all of the participants use the passive simple past grammatically correct in some other cases, they also use this tense without its auxiliary (be). For example the participant (3H) wrote 'the job was taked' in one instance but in another with the same verb they wrote 'she taked to the custody'. Even the low proficient participants like (1L), who is at the lowest level in

the proficiency continuum, inconsistently uses this auxiliary as in the following sentences:

- Jewellery was stolen from one house.
- \* Peter fined. Instead of (Peter was fined, meaning – Peter was charged).

This means that the auxiliary (be) does not seem to be the problem behind which the MS' is used. Therefore, the problem does not appear to fluctuate between using the auxiliary or not, but it seems to be between using two alternative structures , the English passive and the Arabic middle structure besides the English active form.

Semantically, the use of (MD) as appeared in the conversation recordings has no fixed patterns or fixed situations where it could or could not be used, i.e. it is used in an unpredictable way and its meaning is not affected by the context. In much the same way, the use of (MS) by the participants does not follow any pattern and therefore cannot be predicted or explained.

The other semantic similarity is that the (MS) is rarely used for simple present in (LD) and those structures which are grammatically simple present usually have future connotations as in:

- المزبوط انهم يندارلهم دعاية ALmazbūt inhum yindārilhum di'āya.
- لازم ينشد المجرم Lazim yinshad almujrim.

The verbs in these two sentences are in the simple present but the meaning refers to future actions. The (MS) used by the participants is mostly in tenses other than the simple present. Even the responses which should be in the simple present are made in the simple future or simple past. In fact, such use could be the result of either of two factors, the semantic property of the verb as discussed in the first facet of the L1



influence, or the nature of the (MS) that has just been mentioned. For instance, the sentence (لما تنسى القضية lamma tintasā alqaḍia) has future connotation in (LD) but simple present in English (when the case is forgotten), however, most of the participants use simple future tense whether it is active, passive or MS, but not simple present AMS as in:

- \*When the case forget.
- The case will be forgotten.
- After forgetting the case.

Another example is clear in the use of simple past for the following sentence 'the car is sold' which is in the past in (LD).

- \*The car sold
- The car was sold.
- I sold the car.

Thus, the influence of the L1 concerning the use of MS can be in two ways, first, it is used as an alternative of the passive and the active structures, and second, the tense of the MS use is also affected by that of the (LD).

The final facet of L1 influence appears in the fact of using the active when responding to the passive structures. As is shown in the analysis of voice, very few incidents of passive sentences are used. The discussion here will not focus on the avoided structures as this could be the result of some other suggestions, such as cognitive ability or complexity of the English passive structure, but the discussion will be on the responses whether they are active or passive.

Making the agent or the doer of the action unknown during the designing of the passive sentences in the test is carefully considered. For example, in the picture describing test, the people working on John's house are not mentioned, and in some other cases only the type of job is mentioned, yet it is noticed that some participants use active structures and others use passive but restricted to simple structures. Firstly, in the use of passive is that the alternative structures used, whether they are active or passive, are the same as those used in tense and aspect. That is, simple tenses are used to replace continuous and perfect tenses. The other important thing is the fact of activation. In some cases, the use of the active counterpart is explicable in that the agent is more or less known as in the following sentences where it is clear that the doers are the police:

- The boss told Jane that she cannot come back until the police arrest Ted.  
Instead of ( ... until Ted is apprehended)
- (Or) – The worker is painting the wall.

However, in some other cases the agent is not known at all as in the following sentence:

- They said that .....
- (Or) – Someone said .....

The common expression in formal English is 'it is/has been/ was ...etc, said that ... . Some participants use the pronoun 'they'. The cases where the agent is totally absent as is the case with the above mentioned examples, and where the participants use the active structures are called 'activation', discussed in the analysis section (7.4). The similarity between the English activated structures and those of the (LD) is that the

agent used in all activated structures is the plural third person pronoun ‘they’, for example:

- They will finish the window tomorrow. (The agent is not shown or mentioned in the picture.)
- They will pick him as the head of the club. (The expected sentence is ‘he will be chosen to be a chairman of the club’).

In fact, this active use is also expected in informal English. But taking into consideration that the participants are only exposed to formal English, this use of the active structure by a few participants is considered an exception here.

Thus, five ways of L1 influence, the semantic property of the verb, the state-action view, different tense use, MS use and activation, are highlighted and discussed. As far as the language dialects are concerned, the Libyan dialects seem to have an impact on the use TAV on the form of these five facets. In the case of the verb semantic property, both (MSA) and (LD) seem to have an effect as the verb semantic property used in the examples, (Ya’reḥ), is the same in both (MSA) and (LD). Although the second facet, state-action view, is affected by the L1, it is somehow personal dependent, therefore, (LD) cannot be directly claimed as an effective factor on this TAV use. Moreover, the (LD) appears to be effective on the use or non-use of some tenses and aspects as seen in the comparison such as the non-use of future and present perfect which are existent in (MSA) but not (LD). Also, in some cases, it is not only the tenses that are marked as existent or non-existent in (LD) that affect the use or non-use of their English counterparts, but also only those which are actually used that mostly appear in the responses. For example, future perfect exists in both (MSA) and (LD), but it is not commonly used in everyday conversation as shown in

the conversation recordings analysis, and is not used by the participants. In addition, future continuous, which only exists in (LD) but in (MSA) it is restricted to participles, it is not properly used by the participants. The (LD) effect seems to be the sole reason for the last two phenomena, MS and activation in that the former is not common and the latter is never used in (MSA).

## Chapter Ten

### Conclusions and Recommendations

#### 10.1. Conclusions

This study compares and contrasts the structures and meanings of TAV systems in MSA and LD, and then investigates the effect of these systems on the use and acquisition of the English TAV by Libyan learners of English. In other terms, it investigates the existence and non-existence of tense, aspect and voice (TAV) concepts of Libyan dialects (LD), then the impact of these concepts on the acquisition and use of the English TAV by Libyan university students.

The study is conducted in two stages. The first stage is on TAV in modern standard Arabic (MSA) and in Libyan Dialects (LD). The second stage is on the students at one of the Libyan English language faculties. Before the main study was conducted, a pilot study was carried out which aimed at testing the research methods. For the Libyan dialects, the Tripoli region was chosen from three distinctive regions. These three regions are discussed in the Introduction in Chapter One. To represent the LD, Zintan town was chosen for many reasons as mentioned in the Research Methods in Chapter Three.

For the first stage, TAV in MSA and English is investigated through reading the documents and literature written on these two language forms. The LD is also investigated through reading and noting what has been written on Libyan dialects as well as some other Arabic dialects such as Tunisian, Moroccan, Egyptian dialects. This is because there are no sufficient references written on LD concerning TAV. To investigate the TAV of Zintan town, two different methods are used, the first is in a

written form that aims at investigating the existence of TAV on the target dialect and the second method is on the spoken form in the form of recording casual conversations aiming at investigating the extent to which TAV is used in everyday conversations.

The findings of these investigations are then compared and contrasted to see the differences and similarities in using TAV in the three language forms, English, MSA and LD. Then, the results of the two stages are compared and contrasted to answer the research questions.

For the second stage, two methods are used, story writing and picture describing. The former is a text written in both modern standard Arabic and Libyan dialects. However, during the pilot study, the story writing was in fact translating a text written in both MSA and LD, but it appeared that the presentation of the written text affected the participants in that they translated the Arabic tenses too, therefore, the written texts, in both forms (MSA) and (LD), were presented to the participants to study and examine only, and then, a set of pictures that described the sequence of the story and a list of vocabulary and expressions was provided during the main study. This is to minimise the translation disadvantages, and therefore, the test is called 'story writing'.

The data analysis and discussion chapters reveal many similarities and differences between the modern standard Arabic and Libyan dialects in using TAV, on the one hand, and between the Libyan dialects and the English TAV used by the participants, on the other.

The analysis of Stage Two also reveals that there is a degree of variation of the responses by the participants when using TAV and this variation could be attributed

to many reasons such as complexity, perspective and L1 influence. This latter reason is the focus of the study, so, the focus here is only on the phenomena where L1 is believed to have an effect such as the use of MS and activation. In fact, the L1 influence appears to be vivid in five ways as is highlighted in the discussion sections.

This chapter highlights these five effects and discusses the research questions as well as addressing some of the facts of cross-linguistic influence that are discussed in the literature review. The first question is ‘Are there any similarities and differences between modern standard Arabic and Libyan dialects in using tense, aspect and voice?’

The similarities between MSA and LD can be highlighted in the following points:

- 1- Tenses in both MSA and LD are divided into two, perfect meaning past and imperfect meaning present. These two tenses are in most cases expressed by the verb form. Participles are also used particularly for aspect.
- 2- The verbs in MSA are either triliteral or quadriliteral and there are derived verbs also such as verb form (II, III ...). This is also the case with LD verbs.
- 3- In both MSA and LD, the subject and number are affixed to the verb.
- 4- Simple tenses are the most common representatives of tense and aspect together. That is, in both MSA and LD, aspect can be expressed through tense with the help of some other words such as the adverb of time and/or the context. However, auxiliaries are also used for aspect such the auxiliary (كان kāna).
- 5- In both MSA and LD, the simple past is used instead of present perfect although this latter exists in both MSA and LD. The simple past is commonly used for any past action, and the present perfect is only used for emphasising

the recentness of the action. Also, the simple past can be used for present or future situation especially in religious expressions, as well as generally.

- 6- Perfect continuous tenses are not used, and past continuous is the only continuous structure that is used in both MSA and LD. The future continuous is restricted to participles in MSA.
- 7- The MSA and LD are also similar in that future perfect and present perfect exist in both of them, but in LD these tenses have their own preverbs or particles such as the preverb (تلقى talga), the present perfect is used for the purpose of emphasis. However, for these reasons they are deemed as non-existent in LD.
- 8- There is a degree of similarity in using the simple present or present continuous for future actions as is the case with 'انا ذاهب الى السوق غدا' anā dhahibūn ila alsūq ghadan.
- 9- The simple present is used for past actions in MSA and LD. This is called historical present.
- 10- Both MSA and LD use past continuous for habitual past besides interrupted past actions.
- 11- Both MSA and LD employ the external passive form by some derived verbs that have a reflexive or past meaning.

The differences between (MSA) and (LD) can also be summarised in these points:

- 1- The verb in MSA has three moods: indicative, subjunctive and jussive moods. There is no mood in LD.
- 2- Future perfect and past perfect exist in (MSA) but not in (LD).



- 3- The present verb in MSA can be preceded by particles such as (لم lam, and لن lan) which make the meaning of this present form past or future. These particles are considered standard and therefore they are not used in LD.
- 4- The particle (قد qad) that is used in MSA for forming some aspect is not used in LD. This enables the use of present and past perfect in MSA. So, the MSA differs from LD in that it has present and past perfect which do not exist in LD.
- 5- The future auxiliary (سيكون sayakun) is only followed by participles which in turn restricts the future continuous in MSA to these participles, whereas in LD, the equivalent auxiliary can also be followed by a verb for forming future continuous.
- 6- The internal passive exists only in MSA, but not in LD.
- 7- The main difference between MSA and LD can easily be noticed in the use of voice. Passive, which is used in MSA, is not common in LD. Other structures are used in LD such as using participles or some verb forms in what is termed MS, or using the active in what is called 'activation'.
- 8- The passive can be paraphrased in MSA by using the verb (تم tamma). This is not used in LD.

Furthermore, the study of Libyan dialects also reveals some difference between the presence/absence of a structure and its use/non-use in LD. That is, not every structure that is existent in LD is used in everyday conversation. For example, future perfect, future continuous and present perfect are existent in LD, but they are not actually used except for the latter where it is only used for emphasis.

The second question is ‘Are there any similarities and differences between modern standard Arabic and Libyan dialects on the one hand and English on the other concerning the use of TAV’?

This can be discussed from three points of view, syntactic or grammatical, a semantic point of view, and a pragmatic point of view. First, from a syntactic or grammatical point of view, the English tense is usually formed morphologically through changing the verb, and aspect is usually formed with the help of an auxiliary. In Arabic, both MSA and LD, this is also more or less the case in that tense is expressed by inflecting the verb such as in (سيكتب Yaktub – يكتب Kataba – كتبت sayaktub), yet, in other cases, aspect is also expressed morphologically through using participle. Simple tenses in the three language forms do not utilise auxiliaries, and they have almost the same structure. This is shown in section 6.1.

Aspect is also expressed with the help of some other auxiliaries and particles such as (كان kāna) and (قد qad). The difference between the English and Arabic TAV seems to be more vivid in passive. In English, passive is always formed with an auxiliary verb plus verb inflection, while in Arabic the passive is expressed by only the verb in form of morphological change or merely vowelings. That is, both English and MSA have apophonic passive but in English an auxiliary is also used. However, English and Arabic are similar in that the sentences arguments are the same i.e. the object of the active sentence becomes the subject in both MSA and English.

From a semantic point of view, there is a degree of similarity. In the literature review, it is mentioned that Comrie (1976) classified time reference into two absolute tenses which refer to relationship between the time of the situation and the present moment (the time of the utterance), and relative tense that relates the time of

the situation to another situation. According to this classification, tense and aspect in MSA are, to some degree, the same in that aspect is relative and tense is absolute. However, there are points where the Arabic aspect differs from that of the English as is the case with the past continuous. Both MSA and English use this tense for background actions, but it is also used for habitual past in MSA whereas in English it cannot be used in such away. Another difference appears in the use of present perfect. In English, it is used for past actions that have present relevance or timeless past, whereas in MSA and also LD, present perfect is commonly used for emphasising purposes only.

Both English and Arabic seem to have the same reasons for using the passive. The main reasons for using the passive in English is when the agent is not important or when it is not known, this is also the case with Arabic passive.

The third point of view is the pragmatic use of tense and aspect. First, in the data analysis section, the term 'pragmatic' is used as opposite to grammatical to refer to the situation where a tense does not exist in one language and is only distinguished by the context. For example, present continuous does not exist in MSA and it is the context that distinguishes it from simple present, therefore, when the present continuous is used and it is only the context that distinguishes it from simple present, it is termed 'pragmatic' not grammatical. In this discussion, the term 'pragmatic' means when and how a tense is used. For instance, a tense could be grammatically existent but it is not used, so it is pragmatically non-existent.

The pragmatic differences are clear in the use of passive. Almost all passive tenses exist in MSA and the majority of them exist in LD but none of them are actually used. This is clear in the phenomenon of activation.

The similarities between the three language forms, modern standard Arabic, Libyan dialects and English, seem to be in the simple tenses as summarised in the comparison table and diagram in section 6.1. Thus, the answer to the question being discussed is that there are some similarities and differences between (MSA), (LD) and English. Most of the similarities between (MSA), (LD) and English are in the grammatical and semantic properties, and most of the differences are in the use of TAV.

The other two questions are related to the second stage, university students. The first of these questions is: 'At what stage (of the four stages of the university level) do students learn and use the target forms'?

The answer to this question can be seen in tables 10b and 10 d that show the levels at which the TAV is used. The tables show that only the three simple tenses emerge right from the first levels, followed by a few examples of continuous tenses and then perfect tenses, although there is not much of a gap between them. In other terms, some tenses and aspects almost simultaneously emerged. This means that TAV is not affected by the levels, rather, it is, to some extent, affected by the individual participants or by the structure itself due to the factors discussed in the discussion section such as complexity. Another reason for the independency of the emergence of TAV from participants' levels could be attributed to the fact that the majority of them had studied TAV for a good while before they did the test, and that they appeared to be fully aware of English TAV. So, the answer to this question could be summarised as follows: there is no correlation between the participant's level and TAV use. However, this conclusion is restricted to this study only. That is, the participants of this particular study do not show that they are affected by their levels in using TAV.

The second and most important question is: ‘To what extent does the presence of TAV in the participants’ L1 influence their English use of TAV’?

The answer to this question, which is the focus of the present study, is pinpointed in the five facets of L1 influence mentioned in the discussion section. These facets are: the semantic property of the verb, state-action view, tense variation, MS use, and activation.

These five facets are used here to revise and address some of the facts and conclusions on the effect of L1 on L2 usually mentioned in the SLA discipline.

#### **10.1.1. The Mentalist View of L1 Influence**

First, in the mentalist view of L1 influence, this influence is based on the availability of the UG to the L2 learner. There are three different models. The first is the Full Access model which claims that Universal Grammar is accessible to learners directly without the involvement of L1, and therefore the L1 transfer is ruled out. The second is the Full Transfer/Full Access (partial access) model which states that in the first state of L2 learning the learner relies fully on the grammar of his L1 “full transfer” and the more he is exposed to the input, the more he reconstructs his L2 grammar with the help of UG, “full access”. The third model is the No Access model that is the opposite of the full access that says the UG is not available to L2 learners.

In fact, UG is still a debatable and controversial topic, but it is not the scope of this work to discuss the UG per se. The discussion of the UG here is to compare and contrast its view of L1 influence to the findings of this study. According to the mentalist point of view and the availability of the UG, the L1 influence on the use of TAV could be in one of two ways depending on the notion of the UG. First, Ayoun

(2003) mentions some of the criticisms of the parameter setting saying that parameter is either restricted to inflectional or functional categories. This means that the UG focuses on the parameter of (-ed) of the past form or the (-s) of the third person for example, or the head of a noun or a verb phrase. If so, tense, aspect and voice (as whole structures) are outside the UG scope. If so, the mentalist view of L1 influence – in the form of UG accessibility mentioned above- is irrelevant or limited to such categories. If the parameter settings in UG are extended to include tense, aspect and voice structures as whole units, these structures should be classified into ( $\pm$ ). For example, future perfect parameter is (-) in LD and (+) in English. That is, the learner/acquirer of a language sets the tense parameters depending on the input, and then sets the subsets or the micro-parameters accordingly. In this case, a hypothesis could be presented: When a structure ‘tense, aspect and passive’ is (-) in a language, this structure becomes latent. Re-activation of this latent structure would take a longer time than that of the activated structure where the structure is (+) in target language. This proposition could be illustrated by the participants’ mis-use or non-use of some English tenses that do not exist in their LD as shown in the data analysis and discussion chapter.

Given this proposition is true, either of two possible facts can be the case. First, the parameters are reset when an L2 is learned and the latent parameters are reactivated. Or, the second fact that a new set of parameters is available to the learner, then the parameters that are similar to those of the L1 are easily set, and the different (L1-non-existent) parameters are created according to this L2. Thus, in both cases, the re-activation and creation of parameters, suggest that L1 apparently has an influence even when the UG is accessible for the learners opposite to what the Full Access says. Again, if this is true, it could be claimed that one of the reasons why bilingual

children manage to successfully use the grammatical structures of both languages is that they acquire the structures at the same time and therefore no parameter is latent or deactivated.

### **10.1.2. Connectionism View of L1 Influence**

The L1 influence as viewed by the connectionists, including the other related models such as the competition model and information processing model, is more or less similar to that of the behaviourist view in that the previously learned skills affect the learning of new ones. For example, Sokolik and Smith (1992) said that the pre-existent patterns of connectivity interfere with the new one. The major role of the L1 in learning an L2 is mentioned in the literature review, and it is represented briefly here to be reconsidered. First, connectionists say that the L1 effect is more obvious in early stages, and secondly, that the major reason that some learners fail to achieve full target language competence is the L1 interference through the phenomena of overshadowing and blocking. An example is also mentioned in the discussion of the connectionist view in the literature review illustrating the effect of overshadow and blocking, 'Some adverbial are used for expressing temporal actions, they will overshadow aspectual markers, hence, learners will not acquire aspect, that is to say the adverbial use block the acquisition of aspect'.

In fact this phenomenon of overshadow and blocking is not necessarily the L1 effect, but rather it could be within the same language as one structure influences another in that the adverbials that overshadow the aspectual markers are also L2 adverbials. However, these two terms 'overshadow and blocking' can be cross-linguistically re-used in this study with the meaning that the use of (A) structure instead of (B) in L1

could overshadow this latter (B) structure. In turn, this overshadowed (B) structure could block (or delay the acquisition of) its equivalent structure of the L2. This can be explained by the phenomenon of activation or MS use as revealed in this study. That is, the use of active structures in L1 overshadows the passive, and this overshadowed passive blocks the use of the L2 passive.

So, whether it is looked at as a latent parameter or an overshadowed structure, the L1 influence could affect not only the inflectional or functional categories of the L2, but also the use of L2 competence, (Sharwood Smith as edited by Gadrys-Baker 2008), in that the competition between L1 and L2 is not only on the grammatical cues as mentioned in the competition model, but it can also occur between how a function is expressed. To explain this, the model introduced by Sharwood Smith and Truscott (2008) in which they visualise the language system in the brain in terms of modules, literature review, is used. The L1 influence is believed to be in the syntactic structure (SS) in the form of using some grammatical elements as is the case with the past morpheme (-ed) used as an illustration by Sharwood Smith and Truscott. In fact, they mentioned that L1 influence could also stem in the conceptual structure (CS). What is meant by the competition between how a function is expressed is that L1 is not necessarily active in the syntactic structure (SS) in the form of grammatical deviations, but also in the conceptual structure (CS) in the form of using an entirely different grammatical structure (here means tense, aspect or passive). For example, in LD it is shown that simple past is used for situations where present perfect is used in English, or that active structure is commonly used in LD more than the passive. So, conceptually, in the LD, there is no tense between the present and the past, i.e. an even is either present or past. Therefore, the present perfect competes with the



simple past or the passive with the active in the conceptual structure (CS) resulting in avoiding that tense of the target language or using alternative structures.

Thus, conceptual influence is distinguished from morphosyntactic, grammatical or any other form of transfer or influence in two ways. First, the conceptual influence does not always occur in single elements such as between using (ed) or (en), and secondly, conceptual influence does not always result in error. Consequently, L1 influence should not only be investigated through examining L2 learner's errors, but also through examining inappropriate production. The term 'inappropriate' here means when a sentence or a grammatical structure is correct but there is a better or more suitable alternative. The following is an extract from one of the participants responses quoted here to explain this. The participant used simple past instead of present perfect:

“.....then Peter completed ‘any way, the wedding will be postponed, surely I will be prisoned for this stupid error, many people was accused and prisoned’ I think the best think is.....”

Apart from the grammatical errors or mistakes such as ‘*many people was accused*’ and ‘*I will be prisoned*’ the use of the simple past (*many people was accused*), as a tense, is grammatically correct but present perfect would be more suitable.

So far, the type of L1 influence in the form of conceptual influence discussed above could make researchers revise some of their findings such as Ellis (2008) who claims that interference does exist but argued that it has little effect and Dulay et al (1982) who supported this claim by saying that only 5 per cent of errors were the result of interference.

### **10.1.3. Conceptual Transfer**

In the literature review, it is mentioned that this field is new in the study of second language acquisition. It is also mentioned that conceptual transfer is linked to the notion of linguistic relativity which concerns the effect of ‘though’ in language and how native language affects the way people view the world. Within this framework, it is believed that this ‘though’ is also transferred to the L2 use. For example, Han and Cadierno (2010), who studied the transfer of L1 patterns of thinking for speaking, claim that second language learners must learn a different pattern of thinking for speaking when their native language is different from that of the L2 they are learning. They mention two studies to support this claim. One is conducted on Spanish learners of English about using motion and path expressions and the second is on using the definite and indefinite articles by Polish learners of English. Both these two studies showed that L1 is most likely the major influence.

Similarly, the present study has shown the way participants use TAV in their L1 influences, and the way these TAV are used in English. Therefore, this study also supports the claim of Han and Cadierno (2010) about the necessity for the language learner to learn the new patterns when these patterns are different from those of their L1. Of course, the term pattern here means the structures of TAV. For further clarity, the pattern used in LD for expressing recent or present related actions is the simple past, whereas this situation is expressed by the present perfect pattern in English.

## **10.2. Recommendations**

The discussion above leads me to draw some recommendations to the linguists and researchers of second language acquisition and the educationalist and teachers of

English as a second language, especially those who teach homogeneous classes, i.e. where the learners' L1 is the same.

These recommendations are actually based on the findings of this study in general, that is, they have not been compared to those mentioned by other researchers.

Recommendations for the linguists and SLA researchers

- 1- There is a degree of grammatical similarities and differences between the standard language and the Libyan dialects, and not all of the grammatical features of a dialect are actually used, i.e. a particular form might be existent in a dialect, but another form is actually used. These grammatical structures are sometimes used in different situations from those of the target language; therefore, these similarities and differences could be the source of L1 influence and not necessarily the standard structure.
- 2- L1 influence does not always result in errors, and the domain affected by the L1 is not always the syntactic or phonological domain.
- 3- Competition of L1 and L2 cues is not necessarily at the grammatical elements level, but it could be between grammatical structures through the conceptual domain.
- 4- The reasons of avoidance are not necessarily incomplete learning or/and ignorance. Also, avoidance is not always determined by asking whether or not the learner knows the avoided structure, but it could also be detected by examining the alternative structure used by that learner and comparing it to their L1 dialect. That is, it could be conceptual transfer not avoidance.

For language teachers, it is recommended that they consider how a function or an event is expressed in their language learners' L1 including their dialects. This is, of course, applicable when both the teacher and the learners

share the same language background. In fact, this is one of the merits of non-native language teachers as they are familiar with the difficulties that their learners might face.

This does not mean that the course designers should also be aware of the L1 linguistic forms, but it is the teacher who could put some emphasis on the structures where difficulties might arise.

### **10. 3. Suggestions for Further Studies**

1- It is noticed during the reading and searching for reference in LD that there are very few studies made on Libyan dialects, so it is suggested that some other studies can be made particularly on Libyan dialect tenses.

Besides, it is also noticed in this study that some prepositions are used in structures such as ‘في fi’ as in يَلْعَبُ فِي الْكُورَةِ، فِي الْكَارِطَةِ، فِي الشَّطْرَجِ yali’ab fi ilkūra, fi alkarṭa, fi alshetrānj. The question that arises here is: Is this also acceptable in other LD?

2- It appeared during the analysis of the data obtained for this study that the semantic property of the verb of the mother tongue somehow has an effect on the verb choice of the target language as is the example with the verb ‘يعرف ya’rif’. Also, the word ‘التالي altali’ meaning ‘the next’, for example, is used in MSA. In LD a different word ‘\*التاني altani’ meaning ‘the second’ or ‘the next’ is used instead of ‘التالي altali’. It is noticed that some students say ‘the second exam is at ....’ while they mean ‘the next exam’. Therefore, a study could solely be made for the effect of L1 verb meanings on the verb choice of the target language.

3- Another study is also needed on the phenomenon of ‘topicalisation’. It is one of the characteristics of the Arabic language and in particular it is used in LD. During

the analysis of the participants' responses, it seems that this phenomenon is vivid in their English production. For example, some of them write 'the music you play I do not like it' instead of 'I do not like the music you play'. Could this be L1 influence similar to that found out in this study?

These two last studies 'the verb semantic property' and 'topicalisation' would enhance the finding of the study that the concept of the L1 is also transferred, i.e. 'conceptual transfer'.

## References

- Abdel-Hafiz, Ahmed-Sokarno. (2006). The Development of Future Markers in Arabic and the Nile Nubian Languages. South Valley University, Aswan.
- Abduhamid, Mohamed, M. (1980). Sharḥ Ibn ‘akīl. Dār Althurāth. Cairo, Egypt.
- Abdulghani, Ayman, A. (2012). Mūlakḥaṣ qawā’id Alūghā Al’arabia. Dār Altawfiqia Lil-thurāth. Cairo, Egypt.
- Abdunnabi, Awad Wanis. (2000). A Descriptive Grammar of Libyan Arabic (A Structural Approach). Ph-D Thesis. University of Exeter.
- Abu-Haidar, Farida. (1970). A Study of the Spoken Arabic of Baskinta. Ph-D Thesis. London University.
- Ahmed, Albashir. (2008). Production and Perception of Libyan Arabic Vowels. Ph-D Thesis. New Castle University.
- Ageli, Nuri, R. (1989). Tense and aspect in the English of Libyan Arabic - Speaking Students: A Contrastive/Error Analysis Study with Pedagogical Implications. Ph-D Thesis. University of Wales.
- Alhawary, Mohammad T. (2011). Modern standard Arabic Grammar: aLearner's Guide. Wiley-Blackwell. Oxford.
- Almezini, Ahmed. (1994), The Inhabitants of Libya. Centre of Libyan Studies, Tripoli.
- Alsamarrāi, Faḍīl. (2003). Ma’āni Alnaḥu. Al’atik. Cairo, Egypt.

- Andersen, Roger W. Shirai, Yasuhiro., (1994) Discourse motivations for some cognitive acquisition principles. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, Vol 16. 133-156
- Arabisk, Janusz. (2006). Crosslinguistic Influence in Second Language Lexicon. Clevedon: Bilingual Matters.
- Ayoun, Dalila, (2003). Parameter Setting in Language Acquisition. Continuum, London.
- Bardovi-harlig, Kathleen., Reynolds, Dudley W. (1995). The role of lexical aspect in the acquisition of tense and aspect. *Tesol Quarterly*, Vol, 29 – 107-131.
- Benmamoun, Elabbas. (2000). The Feature Structure of Functional Categories: A Comparative Study of Arabic Dialects. Oxford University Press.
- Biber, Douglas. Leech, Geoffrey. Conrad, Susan. (2012). Longman Student Grammar of Spoken and Written English. Longman.
- Binnick, Rober, I. (1991) Time and Verb: A Guide to Tense and aspect. Oxford University Press, NewYork, USA.
- Brustad, K. (2000) The syntax of spoken Arabic: a comparative study of Moroccan, Egyptian, Syrian, and Kuwaiti dialects. Washington: Georgetown University Press.
- Buckley, Ron (2004) Modern Literary Arabic: A Reference Grammar. Labrairie Du Libanon, Libanon.
- Chamali, Ismail. (1997). The Inhabitants of Western Tripoli. Centre of Libyan Studies, Tripoli.

- Chekili, Ferid. (1982). The Morphology of the Arabic Dialects of Tunis. Ph-D Thesis. University College, London.
- Clahsen, Harald & Muysken, Pieter. (1989). The UG paradox in L2 acquisition. *Second Language Research*. Volume 5; 1. SAGE Publications.
- Cohen, L and Manion, L. (1994) 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. Research Methods in Education. Routledge London.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. (2000). 5<sup>th</sup> ed. Research Methods in Education. Routledge London.
- Comrie, Bernard. (1976) Aspect: An Introduction to the Study of Verbal Aspect and Related Problems. Cambridge university Press, London.
- Conner, Jack, E. (1968) A Grammar of Standard English. Houghton Mifflin Company, USA.
- Cook, Vivian. (1993). Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition. Basingstoke: Macwillam, Britain.
- Corder, Pits. (1983). A Role for the Mother Tongue: in Gass, Susan. and Selinker, Larry. Language Transfer in Language Learning. Rowley Massachsetts, USA.
- Coupland, Nikolas, and Jaworsk, Adami (2009). The New Sociolinguistic Reader. Palgrave Macmillan, USA.
- Cuvalay-Haak, Martine. (1997). The Verb in Literary and Colloquial Arabic. Walter De Gruyter, Berlin.



- De-Brown, Martha Ortega. (2007). The acquisition of tense and aspect by spanish and chunese speakers. *Fonael*. Vol, 13 – 3.
- Dechert, Han, W. and Raupach, Manfred. (1989). Transfer in Language Production. Ablex, USA.
- Demirezen, Mehmet. (1988). Behaviourist theory and language learning. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*. Volume 3.135 – 140.
- Demirezen, Mehmet. (1989). Mentalistic theory and language learning. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* Volume: 4, 135 – 160.
- Doughty. Catherine J., Long, Michael H.(2003).The Handbook of Second Language Acquisition.Oxford . London.
- Dulay, Heidi. Burt, Marina. Krashen, Stephen. (1982). Language Two. Oxford University Press.
- Eisenstein, Miriam. (1984) A study of social variational adult second language acquisition. *Language Learning*, Volume: 32 – 2.
- Eisle, John, C. (1999). Arabic Verbs in time: Tense and Aspect in Cairene Arabic. Otto Harrassowitz.
- Ellis, NickC. (1994). Implicit and Explicit Learning of Languages. Academic Press, London.
- Ellis, Nick. (1999). Cognitive approach to second language acquisition. Volume 19:22-42. *Annual Report of Applied Linguistics*. Cambridge University Press. USA.

- Ellis, Nick. (2007). Dynamic Systems and SLA: The woods and the Trees. Bilingualism: Language and Cognition. Volume 10, 23 – 25 Cambridge University Press.
- Ellis, Rod. (1997). Second Language Acquisition. Oxford University Press. Britain.
- Ellis, Rod. (2008) 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. The Study of Second Language Acquisition. Oxford University Press. Britain.
- Eppert, Franz. (1982). Transfer and Translation in Language Learning and Teaching. Seameo, Signapore.
- Epstein, Samuel. Flynn, Suzanne. Martohardlono, Gita. (1996). Second language acquisition: Theoretical and experimental issues in contemporary research. *Behavioural and Brain Science*. Volume 19, 677 – 758. Cambridge University Press. USA.
- Filiouchkina, Maria. (2004). How Tense and Aspect are Acquired: a cross-linguistic Analysis of child Russian and English. Septentrio Academic Publishing. Vol, 32,1.
- Flynn, Suzanne. Martohardlono, Gita. O’Neil, Wayne (1998). Generative Study of Second Language Acquisition. Lawrence Erlbaum, USA.
- Fraenkel, Jack R. and Wallen, N. (1996) 3<sup>rd</sup>ed. How to Design and Evaluate Research in Education. Routledge, London.
- Gabryś-Barker, Danuta. (2008). Morphosyntactic Issues in Second Language Acquisition. Clevedon.

- Gass, Susan. and Selinker, Larry. (1983) Language Transfer in Language Learning. Rowley Massachusetts, USA.
- Gass, Susan. and Selinker, Larry. (2001). Second Language Acquisition: An Introduction Course. Mahwah, N.J. USA.
- Gass, Susan. and Mackey, Alison. (2007) Data elicitation for second and foreign language research. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, New Jersey.
- Hārūn, Mohamed, A. (1988). Kitāb Alsībawih. Alkhanji, Cairo, Egypt.
- Harvey, David, B. A, (1979). Spoken Arabic. Hodder and Stoughton, London.
- Hassan, ‘abās. (1995). Alnaḥu Alwafī. Dār Alma’ārif. Cairo, Egypt.
- Haywood, J. A., and Nahmad, H. M. (1965). A new Arabic Grammar of the Written Language. Lund Humphries. London.
- Hernandez, Jos´e Esteban (2009) Measuring rates of word-final nasal velarization: The effect of dialect contact on in-group and out-group exchanges. *Journal of Sociolinguistics* Vol, 13: 583–612.
- Hickey, Tina. (2009). Code-switching and Borrowing in Irish. *Journal of Sociolinguistics* 13- 5, 670–688.
- Hinckel, Eli. (2004). Tense, aspect and the passive voice in L1 and L2 academic texts. *Language Teaching Research*. Vol, 8-1, 5 – 29.
- Holmes, Janet. (1995). Three chairs for New Zealand English: The EAR/AIR Merger. *Language in Society*, Vol, 14 – 18.

- Ijaz, I. H. (1986). Linguistic and cognitive determinants of lexical acquisition in a second language. *Language Learning*. Volume:36, 401–451.
- Kellerman, Eric. And Sharwood Smith, Michael. (c1986). Crosslinguistic Influence in Second Language Acquisition. Oxford : Pergamon Institute of English.
- Kellerman, Eric. (1995). Crosslinguistic influence: Transfer to nowhere. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*. Volume15, 125 - 150. Cambridge University Press.
- Klaiman, M.H. (1991) Grammatical Voice. Cambridge University Press. Britain.
- Krashen, Stephen D. (1987). Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition. Englewood Cliffs. London
- Laihonen, Petteri. (2008). Language ideologies in interviews: A conversation analysis approach. *Journal of Sociolinguistics* Vol:12/5 : 668–693.
- Laks, Lior. (2013). The Formation of Arabic Passive Verbs: Lexical or Syntactic?. Volume 6. A Paper Published by Tel-Aviv University.
- Lakshmanan, Usha. and Selinker, Larry. (2001). Analysing Interlanguage: How do We Know What Learners Know? Second Language Research. Volume: 17, 393. SAGE Publications.
- Lewis, Michael (1986) The English Verb: An Exploration of Structure and Meaning. Ommercial olour Press, England.
- Johnson, Marysia. (2004) 1<sup>st</sup> edition. A Philosophy of Second Language Acquisition. Yale University Press, London.

- Johansson, Stig. and Oksefjell, Signe (1998). Corpora and Crosslinguistic Research: Theory, Method and Case Study. Rodopi, Amsterdam.
- MacLaughlin, Barry. (1984). Second Language Acquisition in Childhood. Volume (1): Preschool Education. Lawrence Erlbaum Associate. London.
- MacWhinney, Brian. (1998) Models of the emergence of language. *Annual Review of Psychology*. Volume: 49, 199 – 227.
- McLaughlin, Barry. and Harrington, Michael. (1990). Second language acquisition. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*. Vol:10, 122-134. Cambridge University Press.
- Mitchell, Rosamond. and Myles, Florence. (1998). Second Language Learning Theories. Oxford University Press, USA.
- Mitchell, Rosamond. and Myles, Florence. (2004). 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. Second Language Learning Theories. Arlond, London.
- Mitchell, T. F., (1952). The active participle in an Arabic dialect of Cyrenaica. *Bulletin of the School of Oriental and African Studies*. 14, pp 11-33 doi:10.1017/
- Mitchell, T. F., Al-Hassan, S. A. (1994). Modality, Mood and Aspect in Spoken Arabic. Kegan Pual International, London.
- Mohamed, AbdulFatah. (2006) The passive voice in Arabic language: its importance, structure and purpose. Trnaslated from Arabic language by the researcher. University of Demoscus, Vol. 22.
- Mubarak, Mubarak. (1992). Qawā'id Alugha Al'arabia. Alsharika Al'ālamīya lilikutub. Beirut, Lebanon.

- Odlin, Terence. (1989) Language Transfer : Cross-linguistic Influence in Language Learning. Cambridge University Press.
- Odlin, Terence. (2003). Cross-linguistic Influence: In Doughty, J Catherine., and Long, Michael H. The Handbook of Second Language Acquisition.(2003c). Blackwell.
- Odlin, Terence. (2005) Cross linguistic influence and conceptual transfer: what are the concepts? In: McGroarty, Mary. (2005). A survey in Applied Linguistics. Volume:25, 3 – 25. *Annual Linguistic Review*, Cambridge University Press, USA.
- Orinaghi, Dario. (2010) A phonological study of the spatial diffusion of urban linguistic forms to the varieties of the Nile delta. *Journal of Sociolinguistics*: Vol, 14: 184–206
- Owens, Jonathan. (1984). A Short Reference Grammar of Eastern Libyan Arabic. Otto Harrassowitz.
- Parker, Frank. and Riley, Kathryn. (2000) Linguistics for Non-linguistics. Pearson Education Company, USA.
- Parrott, Martin. (2000) Grammar for English Language Teacher. Cambridge University Press, Britain.
- Persson, Maria. (2008). The Role of the B-Prefix in Gulf Arabic Dialects as a Marker of Future, Intent and/or Irrealis. A Paper Published by University of Lund.
- Rev, G,W, and Thatcher, M. A. (1922). Arabic Grammar of the Written Language. Heidelberg, London, second Edition.

- Robinson, Peter. (2001). Cognition and Second Language Instruction. Cambridge University Press.
- Rohde, Andreas. (2000). Tense and Aspect in Naturalistic L2 Acquisition. Psycholinguistic.
- Rothman, Jason. Iverson, Michael. (2008). Poverty-of-the-stimulus and SLA epistemology: Considering L2 knowledge of aspectual phrasal semantics. *Language Acquisition*, Volume:15, 270–314. Taylor & Francis Group, LLC, USA.
- Rutherford, W. (1983) Language Typology and Language Transfer: In Gass, Susan. and Selinker, Larry. (1983) Language Transfer in Language Learning. Rowley Massachusetts, USA.
- Ryding, Karin, C. (2005). A Reference Grammar of Modern Standard Arabic. Cambridge University Press.
- Sharwood-Smith, Mike. and Truscott John. (2008): in Gabrys'-Baker, Danuta. (2008). Morphosyntactic Issues in Second Language Acquisition. Multilingual Matters, Britain.
- Shiffrin, Richard M. and Schneider, Walter (1977) Controlled and automatic human information processing: II. perceptual learning, automatic attending, and a general theory. *Psychological Review*. Volume: 84, 127-190. American Psychological Association.
- Siewierska, Anna. (1984). The Passive: A Comparative Linguistic Analysis. Croom Helm, London.
- Sitrak, Sami, J. (1986) A description of Aspectual Phenomena in Arabic. Ph-D Thesis. University of St. Andrews.

- Slabakova, Roumyana. (2001). Telicity in Second Language. John Benjamins. USA.
- Sokolik, M. E., and Smith, Michael.E. (1992) Assignment of Gender to French Nouns in Primary and Secondary Language : a Connectionist Model. Second Language Research. Volume 8, 39 – 58. SAGE Publications.
- Stanford, James (2008) Child dialect acquisition: new perspectives on parent/peer influence. *Journal of Sociolinguistics*: Volume: 12, 567–596.
- Thomas, Gary (2009). How to do Your Research Project : A Guide for Students in Education and Applied Social Sciences. Los Angeles, Calif. London.
- Towell, Richard. and Hawkins, Roger. (1994). Approaches to Second Language Acquisition. Clevedon Avon, England.
- Tsai, Tseng. (2008). Tense and Aspect in Narrative Writing. National Chiayi University. <http://nutnr.lib.nutn.edu.tw/bitstream/987654321/7772/1/06.pdf>
- Verma, Gajendra K. and Beard, Ruth M. (1981)What is Educational Research : Perspectives on Techniques of Research.Aldershot : Gower, Britain.
- Verma, Gajendra K. and Mallick, Kanka. (1999) Researching Education: Perspectives and Techniques. Falmer Press, Britain.
- Versteegh, Kees. (2006). Encyclopedia of Arabic Language and Linguistics. Brill Leiden – Boston.
- White, Lyda. (1987). Markedness and second language acquisition. *Studies in Secon Language Acquisition*. Volume: 9, 261-286. Cambridge University Press. USA.



- White, Lyda. (1990) Second language acquisition and UG. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*. Volume: 12, 121- 133. Cambridge University Press. USA.
- Wiersma, William. (1991). 5<sup>th</sup> edition. Research Methods in Education: an introduction. Allyn and Bacon, London.
- Wilkinson, David. and Birmingham, Peter. (2003). Using Research Instruments : A Guide for Researchers. Routledge, London.
- Wolfe-Quentero, Kate. (1996). Nativism does not equal universal grammar. *Second Language Research*. Volume: 12, 335. SAGE Publications.
- Wright, W. (1896). A Grammar of the Arabic Language. Cambridge University Press, Volume I, third Edition.
- Ying, H, G. (1999). Access to UG and language transfer: a study of L2 learners' interpretation of reconstruction in Chinese. *Second Language Research*. Volume: 15, 41–72. SAGE Publications.
- Yule, George. (1998) Explaining English Grammar. Oxford University Press, Britain.
- Zdorenko, Tatiana and Paradis, Johanne. (2008). The acquisition of articles in child second language English: fluctuation, transfer or both? *Second Language Research*. Volume: 24, 227–250. SAGE Publications.

## Appendixes

### Appendix (I)

#### حول هذه الجمل الى اللهجه العامية

- 1 - عندما تاتي الى المنزل الساعة السابعة ستجدني قد غادرت المكتب.
- 2 - في نهاية هذه السنة سايكون لي عشرون سنة اشتغل في هذه الشركة.
- 3 - لقد انهيت عملي للتو.
- 4 - لي اكثر من ساعة اتمرن.
- 5 - عندما وصلت الشرطة كان الرجل قد مات.
- 6 - عندما وصلت الى الصالة وجدت بعض الاطفال يلعبون وكانوا قد امضوا ساعات وهم يلعبون.
- 7 - السيارة سيتم اصلاحها غدا.
- 8 - الحقيبة مسروقة.
- 9 - الجسر يتم اصلاحه الان.
- 10 - الطريق تم فتحها.
- 11 - اسمه شطب من القائمة.
- 12 - القائمة كان قد تم اعدادها عندما اعلمنا بها.

### The English Translation

- 1- When you come at my office at seven P.M., I will have gone.
- 2- By the end of this year, I will have been working for twenty years for this company.
- 3- I have just finished my work.
- 4- I have been training for more than an hour.
- 5- When police arrived, the man had died.
- 6- When I arrived at the hall, there were some children playing. They had spent hours playing.
- 7- The car will be fixed.

- 8- The bag is stolen.
- 9- The bridge is being repaired now.
- 10- The road has been opened.
- 11- His name was deleted from the list.
- 12- The list had been prepared when we heard about it.

## Appendix (II)

### Q1- Change these sentences into passive.

1- He will submit the report next term.

-----

2- The teacher gives 15 minutes for the test.

-----

3- Someone was building huts in that hill.

-----

4- They take the children to the zoo every weekend.

-----

5- Margaret is correcting the exam papers.

-----

6- We have finished three stages.

-----

7- The students saw the movie before the exam.

-----

8- I had sent many letters to your office.

-----

### Q2- Correct the verb between the brackets.

1- A: Did you like the movie "Star Wars?"

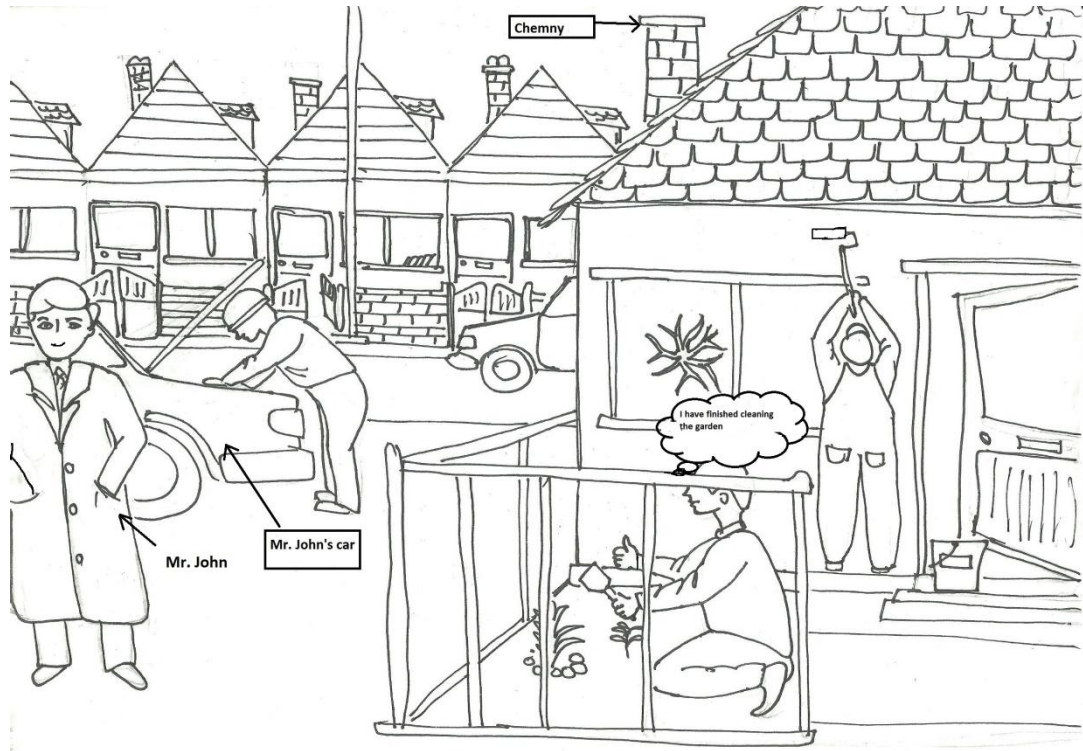
B: I don't know. I (see) ----- that movie.

2- My best friend and I (know) -----each other for over fifteen years.

- 3- I (study) ----- here for more than three years  
now.
- 4- John (work) -----for the government since he  
graduated from Harvard University.
- 5- By the time I got to the office, the meeting (begin, already) -----  
-----without me. My boss **was** furious with me and I **was** fired.
- 6- Last week, I **ran** into a friend of mine. We (see, not) -----  
each other in years, and both of us **had changed** a great deal.
- 7- When we wake up in the morning, we notice that it (rain) -----  
----- all the night.
- 8- By the time I got my certificate, I (live) ----- in the  
UK for four years, and I (finish) ----- three  
English levels.

## Appendix (III)

### Picture Describing



No.	Service	Fixed?	Time
1	The fence	Yes	Yesterday
2	The chemny	Yes	Yesterday
3	Painting	Not yet	Now
4	Window	No	Tomorrow
5	Garden	Yes	Just now
6	Car	Not yet	Now

This is Mr John. He is having his house renovated and his car repaired. Look at the table that summarises the services he got, has got, is getting, and will get, then write some paragraphs about his and these services.

You can start with .....

“Mr. John is renovating his house, he .....

## Appendix (IV)

### A- ModernStandard Arabic version

#### الخطأ البسيط

في احد ايام الصيف عندما كانت الاشجار تخضر و كانت الناس تستمتع بالجو المشمس قيل ان مجوهرات سرقت من احد المنازل. المجوهرات كانت قد شريت لمناسبه الشهر المقبل. اصحاب المنزل هذا امضو مدة من الوقت يستعدون لهذه المناسبة. و امضو مدة من الوقت يسافرون لحصلوا على الحاجيات المطلوبة. في ذلك اليوم رجع الاثنان مبكرا لكنهم لم يلاحظوا انهم سرقوا الا عندما كانت المرأة ترتدي ملابس النوم لاحظت ان الخزانة مفتوحة و خالية فصرخت " لقد سرقنا. احد ما سرق كل المجوهرات" فقال الراجل " لا! لقد امضينا وقت طويل نجتمع هذه المجوهرات و الان ها قد ذهبوا مرة واحدة. لابد ان نبليغ الشرطة بسرعة انا متأكد ان السارق لايزال مختبي قريب من هنا."

بما انه لا يوجد شهود عيان على هذه السرقة, فالشي الوحيد الذي تقوم به الشرطة الان هو التحقيق مع Jane . جين Jane واي مشتبه به. تد هو احد المشتبه بهم لهذا الشرطة تحقق مع صديقه جين الان Ted . تعمل في نادي و كان قد امضت سنين تعمل في ذلك النادي عندما التقت مع تد

"في الواقع سمعت عنه قبل ان نلتقو قبل سنتين. كان يبحث عن مفتاحه طوال الليل باقرب من النادي وانا ضننت انه سارق ومن ذلك الوقت اصبحنا اصدقاء و امضينا فترة نسكن مع بعض و اعرفه جيدا. تد Ted فتى جيد وناشط ولو ذهبتم الى المنزل الان فانا متأكدة بانه قد رتب المنزل وعندما تصلون الى هناك ستجدونه قد غادر للعمل لتوه. فهو يعمل في شركة نفط حيث امضى مدة يعمل بها. على ما اعتقد ان شهر خمسة القادم سيكون قد قضى عشر سنوات بالضبط في الشركة. و حسب علمي انه سيرقى في مايو. وهو ايضا يذهب الى النادي كل سبت عندما يكمل عمه المنزلي لهذا غدا عند هذا الوقت سيكون داهب الى النادي. وحتى تكونو متأكدين سيكون حاملا معه العدة الرياضية. في الحقيقة هو يحب السباحة لهذا السبوع القادم سنذهب لمركز السباحة. وهو كذلك رجل محظوظ لانه سيكون قد اختير رئيس لنادي في نهاية هذه السنة"

الغريب فالامر ان الشرطة تعرف تد Ted من سنين و الواقع عكس ما تقوله جين Jane الان. و الشرطة تفحصوا المنزل و تعرف ايضا ان المنزل لم ينصف و اشياء كثيرة حولت من مكانها. على الفور بدت الشرطة تعتقد ان جين Jane متورطة مع تد Ted فالسرقة و هي الان تخبئه في جبهة ما.

اخبرت جين Jane انها ستعتقل حتى يتم التحقيق و لكن ضنت انها تستقروا حتى تقول الحقيقة. لكن عندما اختفاء تد Ted و هي اخدت التوقيف عرفت انها كانت مخدوعة من قبل تد Ted كل هذه المدة.

في منزل الضحية الزوجين رجعوا و الان هما يتحدثون. قال بيتر Peter: "اذا لم توجد المجوهرات عند نهاية الشهر المناسبة ستؤجل. كارن Karen قالت: "كيف استطاع السارق ان يفتح الخزانة؟" في هذه اللحظة تذكر بيتر وصرخ: "نحن كنا على خطأ! نحن لم نسرق! انا اخبأت المجوهرات في الحجرة الثانية." كانت هناك لحظت صمت ثم اكمل بيتر: "المناسبة ستأجل على كل حال. انا متأكد اني سأسجن على هذا الخطاء الغبي. كثير من الناس اتهمت و اخرين كثير سجنتم. اعتقد انه من

الافضل ان لا اخبر الشرطة اننا وجدنا المجوهرات. غدا سأذهب المركز واسحب الشكوى, الناس المعتقلة سيطلق سراحها وبعد مدة عندما تنسى القضية, ابلغ ان المجوهرات وجدت." كارن قالت: " لا اعتقد ان هذا سينفع. الشرطة سوف تشك في القرار المفاجي هذه وانت سيستجوبوك و وستسجن على هذا الازعاج و الفوضى الذي تسبب فيها كل هذا الوقت".

هي كانت على حق, بيتر Peter غرم و اطر ان ابييع المجوهرات حتى يدفع ثمن هذا الخطا الصغير ولكنه مكلف.

عندما اطلق سراح جين Jane و ذهبت الى النادي وجدت ان المدير كان قد استاجر شخص اخر لكن هي انزعجت من اختفاء تد Ted . المدير اخبرها انه حتى يلتقى القبض على تد Ted هذا الاسبوع لن ترجع للعمل. هي بقيت تتساءل اذا كان تد Ted فعلا هو السارق و مع هذا فهي مؤمنة بان عند نهاية هذا الاسبوع تد Ted سيكون قد اعتقل وكل شخص سيكون قد عرف الحقيقة.

في ذلك اليوم عندما كانت جين Jane تستجوب من قبل الشرطة, شاهدتهم تد Ted بالقرب من بوابة النادي. ولانه سجن من قبل اكثر من مرة و الشرطة تعرفه جيدا قرر ان يهرب من المنطقة على الرغم من انه لم يفعل شي. بعد مدة اتصل بيها و اخبرها بانه كان يقوم بأعمال في الشركة و الان اعطى اجازة لمدة شهر. جين Jane لا تزال غاضبه و في شك من ما قاله. قالت له: "حسنن, عندما تصل الى هنا سأكون قد انتقلت, امتعتك ستكون رميت خارجا انت ستعيش لوحدهك من اليوم فصاعدا. العمل اخذ, السيارة التي كانت تصلح من اجلك بيعت, المنز بيع, كل هذا بسبب اختفائك المفاجئ. لن نلتقي مرة اخرى". على الفور حزم تد Ted امتعته و رجع الى جين. عندما وصل الى هناك وجد ان اغراضه تزال و اخبر انها اتجهت الى صديقتها في اكستر.

عندما سمعت كارن Karen بان جين Jane و تد Ted انفصلا ذهبت لتري جين Jane لكنها تاخرت, جين Jane رحلت. تقابلت مع تد Ted و شرحت له كل شيء. قال تد Ted "يجب ان اسرع الان, اذا لم اصل الى المحطة في نصف ساعة ستكون قد غادرة و هذا يعني ان كل شيء سيكون قد ذهب معها".

كارن Karen الان في المنزل لوحدها تفكر في الموقف. بيتر Peter مسجون, اضطرو الى بيع المجوهرات التي شريت للمناسبة و التي الغيت. وتفكر في كيف ان نتيجة خطأ صغير أثر على حياتها و حياة ناس اخرى.



## B- Libyan Dialects version

### الغظة البسيطة

في يوم من ايامات الصيف الدنيا تخضر و كانت الناس تستمتع الجو المشمس قالوا انخبت مجوهرات من حوش فاضي. المجوهرات هدي انشرت لمناسبه الشهر المقبل. اصحاب الحوش هذا ليهم مدة اوتو لهالمناسبه. و ليهم مدة و هما اسافروا باش اوصولو الحاجات المطلوبة. هدالكا اليوم الزوز روجو بكري شوي لكن ملاحظوش انهم انخبوا الا لما كانت المرا تلبس في الملابس النوم لاحظت ان الخزنة مفتوحة و فاضية فصرخت " انسرقتنا. فيه حد خنب كل المجوهرات" قال الراجل "لا لا! تو ليينا قداش انلقطوا فيهم و تو هاهم مشو في مرة واحدة. لازم انبلغوا الشرطة بسرعة انا متأكد ان السارق قاعد كامن قريب من هنا."

بما ان مافيش شهود عيان في هالسرقه, فالشي الوحيد اللي ادير فيه الشرطة تو هو التحقيق عما اي مشتبه فيه, تد Ted واحد من المشتبه فيهم لهذا الشرطة تو اتحقق عما صديقتة جين Jane. جين Jane تشتغل في نادي و كان ليها سنين تشتغل فيه لما تلاققت عما تد Ted.

"في الواقع سمعت عليه قبل مانلاقو قبل سنتين. كان ادور في مفتاحه الليل كله بحدنا النادي ونا نحسابه خانب ومنها ونا اصحاب و ليينا فترة عايشين عما بعض و نعرفه كويس. تد Ted فتى باهي وناشط لو تمشو للحوش تو انا متأكدة بانه ضام الحوش ولما توصلو غادي ابتالقه كيف طلع للعمل. هو يخدم في شركة نפט و ليه مدة يخدم فيها. على ما اضمن شهر خمسة الجاي ابدا ليه عشر سنوات بالضبط في الشركة. و حسب علمي انه بيترقى في مايو. كذلك هو يمشي لنادي كل سبت لما ايكمل عمل الحوش لهذا غدوة هالوقت بيكون داهب للنادي. وباش اتكونو متاكدين حيكون رافع عماه العدة الرياضية. و الحق هو ايجب السباحة لهذا السبوع الجاي حنمشوا لمركز السباحة. و هو كذلك رجل محظوظ لانه حيكونو اختاروه رئيس لنادي في نهاية هذه السنة"

الغريب فالامر ان الشرطة تعرف تد Ted من سنين و الواقع عكس الي اتقول جين Jane تو. و الشرطة شافو الحوش تعرف ايضا ان الحوش ماتمش تنضيفه و حاجات هلبه تحولت من مكانها و تد Ted . على طول بدت الشرطة تعتقد ان جين Jane متورطة عما تد Ted فالسرقه وهي تو امخبياتة في جبهة من الجيه.

قالولها انها جين Jane انهم ابيعتقل لين اتم التحقيق و لكن تحسابهم يستفزوا فيها باش اتقول الحقيقة. لكن لما اختفاء تد Ted وهي رفعوها للتوقيف عرفت انها كانت مخدوعة من قبل تد Ted كل هالمدة.

في حوش الضحية الزوز كيف روجو و تو هما ايهدرزو. بيتر Peter قال: "اذا مالتقتش المجوهرات عما نهاية الشهر حناجلو المناسبة. كارن Karen قالت: "كيف قدر السارق يفتح الخزنة؟" في اللحظة هدي بيتر تفكر حاجة وصرخ: "احنا كنا غالطين! احنا مانسرقماش! انا دسيت المجوهرات في الحجره الثانية." كانت فيه لحظت صمت و كمل بيتر Peter: "المناسبه حتتاجل على كل حال. انا متأكد اني حنحسب على الخطاء الغبي. ناس ياسرة اتهمت و ياسرة اخرين انحبست. اعتقد ان من الافضل اني مانقولش لشرطة انا لقينا المجوهرات. غدوة ابنمشي للمركز نسحب الشكوى, الناس المعتقلة حتتطلق وبعد مدة القضية حتنتسى, انبلغ ان المجوهرات التقت." كارن قالت: "ماعتقدش هذه يمشي حاله."

الشرطة حتشك في القرار المفاجي هذه وانت حيستجوبوك و حتحبس على هالازعاج و الفوضى اللي ليك مدة اتسبب فيها".

هي كانت على حق, بيتر Peter تغرم و اطر ان ابييع المجوهرات باش يدفع حق هالخطا الصغير لكن مكلف.

لما طلعت جين Jane و مشت لنادي لقت المدير استاجر شخص اخر لكن هي انزعجت من اختفاء تد Ted. المدير قالها لين يلتقا تد Ted الاسبوع هذا مش حتقدر ترجع للعمل. هي قعدت تتساءل ادا كان تد Ted فعلا هو السارق عما هذا مؤمنه بان عما نهاية الاسبوع هذا تد Ted حيكون انشد وكل حد حيكون عرف الحقيقة.

في هداكا اليوم لما كانت جين Jane تستجوب من قبل الشرطة, شافهم تد Ted بحدا بوابة النادي. ولانه انحسب قبل اكثر من مرة و الشرطة تعرفه كويس قرر ان يهرب من المنطقة على الرغم من انه مادار شي. بعد مدة اتصل بيها و قالها بانه كان ابيدير في شغل للشركة و تو عطوه اجازة لمدة شهر. جين Jane قعدة زاقه و شاكة في اللي قاله. قالته: "باهي, لما توصل هنا حنكون حولت, دبشك حيكون تلوح البرا. انت حتعيش بروحك من اليوم ورايح. العمل اتاخذ, السيارة اللي كانت تصلح على شانك انباعت, الحوش ينباع, كل هذا بسبب اختفائك المفاجي. مش حنتلاقوا مرة ثانية". على طول ضم تد Ted صاكوه و رجع لجين Jane. لما وصل غادي لقي دبشه اينحوا فيه و جين Jane مشت. قالوله انها مشت لصديقتها في اكستر.

لما كارن Karen سمعت بان. تلاققت عما تد Ted و شرحته كل شيء. "لازم نمشي تو" قال تد Ted " ادا نا وصلتش المحطة قبل نص ساعة جين Jane حتكون مشت و هذا معناها كل شيء حيكون مشي عماها".

كارن Karen الان في الحوش بروحها اتفكر في الموقف. بيتر Peter محبوس, اطرو ان ابييعو المجوهرات اللي شروها للمناسبة اللي تكنصلت. وتفكر في كيف نتيجة خطا صغير اتر في حياتها و حياة ناس ثانية.

## The English translation

### The simple Mistake

On one of the summer days when the tree were becoming green and people were out enjoying the sunny day, it was reported that a lot of jewellery was stolen from an empty house. This jewellery had been bought for an occasion the following month. The owners of this house had been preparing for this special occasion for months; they had been travelling a lot to get all the things needed. That day, the couple went back home early but they did not realise that they had been robbed until at night when the woman was getting her nigh dress on and noticed that the save was open

and empty. “we have been robbed” she cried, “someone has stolen all our jewellery”. “oh no” replied the man, “ we have been collecting this for ages and now it has gone all at once, I cannot believe it.” “We must call the police right now. I am sure the thief is still hiding nearby”.

As there are no witnesses on this robbery, the only thing that the police is doing in this case is questioning any suspected ones. Ted is one of them, so the police are now questioning his friend Jane. Jane works in a club not far from Ted’s house. She had been working there for many years when she met Ted, who had moved to that area two year before, and became friends.

“In fact I had heard about him before we met two years ago. He had been looking for his key all the night beside the club and I thought he was a thief. Since then we have been good friends. We have been living together for a while and I know him very well. He is a nice guy and if you go to the house now I am sure you will find that he has tidied up his room and by the time you get there he will have gone for work. He works at a petroleum company. He has been working there for many years, I think next May he will have been working at that company for ten years. To the best of my knowledge, he will be promoted in May. He also goes to a sports club on Saturdays when he finishes his chore, so tomorrow at this time he will be going to the club. To assure you he will be carrying his sports gear. Actually, he loves swimming so next week we will go to a swimming centre. He is also a lucky man as he will have been chosen to be a chair man of the club by the end of this year”.

Surprisingly, the police have known Ten for years and the reality is opposite to what Jane is saying now. The police have also visited his house and know that the house has not been cleaned and many things have been removed. Soon the police started to think that Jane is involved with Ted in the robbery and she is hiding him somewhere. They told her that she will be arrested until they finish the investigation, but she thought that she was being tricked to tell the truth. However, when Ted disappeared and she was taken to custody, she began to think that she had been deceived by Ted all this time.

Now at the victims’ house, the couple have just returned home and they are having a chat. “If the jewellery is not found by the end of this month, we will have to postpone the wedding” Peter said. “How did the burglar manage to open the save?” Karen exclaimed. At this time Peter remembered something and shouted “we have been wrong! We have not been robbed. I hid the jewellery in the other room!” There was a moment of silence then Peter said “ the wedding will be postponed anyway. I am sure I will be jailed for this silly mistake”. “ Many people have been accused and many others have been arrested” he continued. “I think it is better not to tell the police that we have found the jewellery. Tomorrow I will go to the police station and withdraw my complain. The arrested people will be released and after some time when the case is forgotten, I announce that the jewellery has been found. “I do not think this will work out. The police will suspect this sudden decision and you will be

questioned”, commented Karen. “you will be charged for this inconvenience and the mess you have been causing.

She was right, Peter was charged and he had to sell all the jewellery to pay for this small but costly mistake.

When Jane was released and went back to the club, she found that her boss had hired someone else, but she was disturbed by the disappearance of Ted. The boss told her that until Ted is caught this week, she cannot come back to her job. She was wondering if he was really the stealer! However, now she believes that Ted will have been apprehended and everyone will have known the truth by the end of this week.

On that day, when Jane was being questioned by a policeman, Ted saw them at the club’s gate. Because he had been imprisoned many times and the police knew him well, he decided to flee the area though he did nothing this time. Later on, he phoned Jane and told her that he had been doing some work for the company and now he had been given a leave for a month. Jane was still upset and sceptical about what he said. “Ok” she said “when you get here, I will have moved out, your luggage will have been thrown out. You will be living alone from now on, my job is gone, my car, which was being repaired for you, is sold and the house is being sold now, all this is because of your sudden leaving. I will not be seeing you again”. Soon Ted packed up and went back to Jane. When he got there he found that his furniture was being removed and Jane had left. He was told that she headed for her friend in Exeter.

Karen heard that Jane and Ted had split up, so she went to see Jane, but she was too late. She met Ted and explained everything to him. “I must dash” Ted said “If I do not get to the station in half an hour, she will have gone, and this means that everything will also have gone forever”.

Karen now is at home alone thinking of the situation. Peter is imprisoned. They had to sell all the jewellery they bought for the wedding which is now cancelled. She is also thinking of how the consequences of a simple mistake affected her life and other people’s lives as well.

## Appendix (V)

The Picture set used for re-writing the story



احدى ايام الصيف عندما كانت الاشجار تخضر



الناس خارج بيوتهم يستمتعون باليوم المشمس



مجوهرات سرقت



هذه المجوهرات كانت قد اشتريت لمناسبة الشهر المقبل



يستعدون لهذه المناسبه



يسافرون لحصلوا على الحاجيات المطلوب



لم يلاحظوا انهم سرقوا



المرأة ترتدي ملابس النوم



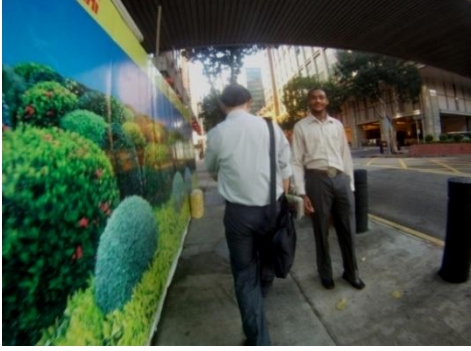
الخرزنة مفتوحة و خالية



السارق لايزال يختبي قريب من هنا



كان يبحث عن مفتاحه طوال الليل



غادر الى عمله

رتب حجرته



يشتغل في شركة نفطية



يذهب الى النادي كل سبت



سكنون ذاهبين لمركز السباحة



اختير رئيس لنادي



الشرطة تفحصوا المنزل



الحجرة لم تنظف



وهي الان تخبئه في جبهة ما



اخذت الى التوقيف



الان هما يتحدثان



المناسبه ستأجل انا سأسجن



المدير كان قد استاجر شخص اخر



كثير من الناس اتهمت



اخرين كثير سجن





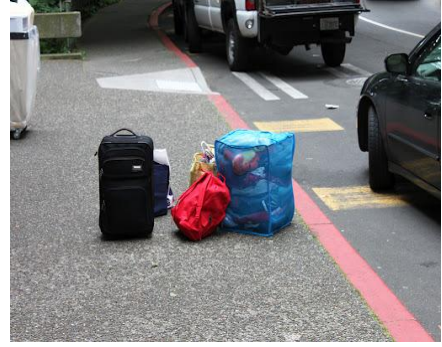
تستجوب من قبل الشرطة



اتصل بيها



انتقلت



الامتعة رميت خارجا



ستعيش لوحدهك



السيارة التي كانت تصلح من اجلك بيعت



المنزل يباع



اغراضه تزال



سكنون قد غادرت كل شيء سيكون قد ذهب معها



كارن Karen الان في المنزل لوحدها تفكر



بيتر Peter مسجون

A List of Vocabularies from the story

Become green تخضر	jewellery مجوهرات	enjoy يستمتع
Wedding مناسبة	question يستجوب	suspected مشتببه فيه
owner مالك الشيء – صاحب	witness شهاد عيان	Travel يسافر
infact في الواقع	look for يبحث	club نادي
Notice يلاحظ	Rob يسرق	Get dressed ترتدي
thief سارق	guy فتى	tidied رتب – ضم
Save خزنة	Hide مختبئ	Question يحقق/تحقيق
oil company شركة نفطية	exactly بالضبط	chore عمل يومي
Tidy يرتب	Promote رقى	Chore عمل منزلي
Sports gear العدة الرياضية	Swimming centre مركز سباحة	Chairman رئيس لنادي
surprisingly الغريب في الامر	removed تحولت	involved متورطة
Somewhere ما جهة	robbery سرقة	arrest اعتقل
trick يستفز	disappeared اختفى	custody توقيف
deceive يخدع	Postpone يؤجل	Stupid mistake غبي خطأ
Accuse يتهم	Imprison يسجن	case قضية
Suspect يشك	Sudden decision قرار مفاجئ	Question يستجوب
Mess فوضى	Release يطلق سراح	Hire يستأجر
apprehend يلقي القبض على	Wonder يتسأل	believe يؤمن
Truth حقيقة	Gate بوابة	Run away يهرب
Leave اجازه	Move ينقل	Luggage امتعة
Split up ينفصل		
	method اسلوب	
Become green تخضر	jewellery مجوهرات	enjoy يستمتع
Wedding مناسبة	question يستجوب	suspected مشتببه فيه
infact في الواقع	look for يبحث	club نادي
thief سارق	guy فتى	tidied رتب – ضم
oil company شركة نفطية	exactly بالضبط	chore عمل يومي
surprisingly الغريب في الامر	removed تحولت	involved متورطة
robbery سرقة	arrest اعتقل	trick يستفز
disappeared اختفى	custody توقيف	deceive يخدع
witness شهاد عيان	method اسلوب	case قضية
believe يؤمن	apprehend يلقي القبض على	owner مالك الشيء

## Appendix (VI) Transcription of the conversation recording and facebook extracts

### A- Transcription of the conversation recording

كان جبتنا خبزة؟

و الله ماندرى عليكم كان قلتولي. ان شا الله قاعدين كيف اتطيووا؟ وين لقروب الثاني؟

عبد الفتاح في المربوعة و نادر ايطيب الداخل و حنا هنا جاهزين هنا بنقرضوا وبنديروا مزاييط ..... تعالا هنا وين ماشي؟

الضبع في بشيمه. هاهو يمشي عماك عبدالفتاح يعرفه وين.

تبي دولار تو انكملك واحد.

عملة باوند مش دولار.

هو ابياخد؟

هاهو تو انكملك واحد و الا برا لضبع.

ليل عليا انا و الله ماوتيت حاجه ..... مرحب شن حالك؟

هدا داير الصحن وين الخيط امتعة؟

..... هي هالجبهه خدت اكثر من الجبهات لخرات ..... خيرا مايركباش طول؟

ايه المفروض ايركبه طول.

بالك القمر متغيير؟

توه انكلموه. انت بتبدل والا شن؟

انا اباخذ ... ابنشري. غدوة ماشي.

انتشري شن؟

. ..... انا انراحي من بكري قدام المحل.

قعدنا نشروا في اللحم. ....... ابتلقى علي غادي قال تو نمشيله.

حتى هو في الاول مانحساباش هو. قبل ابنشري انروح. انوخر. قبل ابنشيله في الحوش هنا. قبل بنروخ انجيب الشنطة حاطها قدا انساباتي.

وين اتروح؟

هاك واحد ابيشري دولار ولا باوند هاك خلي ايكملك. غدوة امسافر الراجل. ناوند عندك ناوند. وين يلقاه؟

اسمع فيه واحد ايدور في باوند..... باهي وين نلقوه.

وهذا شني المؤتمر الصحفي في الزنتان, فيه حاجة و الا شي؟

قال فيه منضمه امطعلا الجرحى انتعين المشاشية بسبب الجراد و الزنتان امدائرتهم بسبب عدم...مش عارف تفجر عليهم. يعني مش حتى هما اطلاق نار؟ ان هما سؤ استخدام للجراد تفجر عليهم. تو امقدمين شكوى.

باهي قولهم اللي مضروبين بالرصاص امولي عليهم الرصاص؟

, بيقدموا تقريرهم الزنتان.

ياخواني راهو ---- و --- ماعاش يابيهم حد. مصر شدوها الاخوان تونس شدوها الاخوان وهدولا يبوا الصلابي و يبوا الجماعة لخرين. القصة نحكيها لكم بالتفصيل. كانت - هي حرب فيها الدولة - الازلام اللي تو ايجاربووا الدولة و الازلام .

الازلام بشن مستفيدين. خطتهم انهم يججوا بغطاء بالمشاشية بيكسرو ---, بعد نا ايولوا --- لي لعوينيه, --- بيقولوا بنولو لبلادنا, بيكسروا --- و لما ايكسرو --- و ---, الغرب الليبي خلاص يعتبروا صيطروا عليه. تملأ و الشرق راصيين بالتقسيم زايد ناقص. الحكومة بعد ما بدت --- اتناطح غي الحكومة تبي سلاحها ايتكسر, خشمها ايتكسر.

عندهم ورقة رابحة تو, --- خاصة بعد هدي تو الجنائيات الدولييه بوا الا ؟؟؟؟ في الدول الاوروبيه.

لا ماهو هي الحكومة بحد داتها معاش لكن الحزب اللي بيشد هو اللي ايبيرمج من تو. الاخوان هدا من تو ايبيرمجوا.

الاخوان شن الدعاية الانتخابية امتعهم؟ شن هي العروض اللي ايقدموا فيها باش ترضى بيهمالناس؟ شن ايقولوا؟ تو مثلا في مصر, شن كانوا ايقولوا؟

قالك عندهم ثقل. الاخوان قالك ناعنداش مشكله ايبيع اي شي على حساب انه يحكم. الاخوان حتى لما طلعا ايتفاوضوا عما اي حد.

فيه ميزه لو ان مصر شدوها الاخوان و تونس شدوها الاخوان و ليبيا ايشدوها الاخوان يعتبر اتحاد قوي! فيه ميزه لكن شن برنامجهم الانتخابي انا هدي معرفتهاش.

احنا ماندوش عليهم. احنا اول مرة - تو مصر يعرفوهم, تونس يعرفوهم.

هما لالاخوان تدعم فيهم امريكا عن طريق قطر. امالا كيف قدروا ايترشحوا؟ عن طريق امريكا شدوها غصين عنهم. فكرتهم لما بيذا فيه الاخوان يضاهي التطرف الاسلامي, التطرف الاسلامي مايقدروش ايجاربوو نهائيا - بدل من الغلغل في الناس اطحطلم الاخوان تيار معتدل خلي ايفوزوا في الدول اهايه.

المشكلة الاخوان معروفين من زمان يعني تو الغرب مايجبوهمش.

لا لا راهو حتى في اتجاهم و منهجهم راهو ضد الغرب. هما بيحطوهم ضد القاعدة. الاخوان تيار معتدل لكن ليينين عما الغرب اكثر من القاعدة.

..... نفس القايبينه لكن اسمع, الثقل وين. عندهم ثقل و فطاحله.

..... منو ---- الاخر اللي قتلوه؟

--- عما ---- و لاغلابيه عما ح و ص. اصلا الجزيرة هي الللي امطعلاه. شن قال حتى تو ----, قال فيه ناس في المناير بتشوهني انا.

منو يا عبدالفتاح ---- اللي قالوا لقوه ميت؟ قالوا امهتك تهتيكه شينه.

قالوا هابكينه ----.

ماسمعتش بيه. تو هذا ولد ---- اللي قتلوه شدوهم, مش ----. شدوهم واحد سكران. املوحينه في الكناسه. هذا اللي امعديينه ---- لكن عرفوهم, شدوهم, جابوهم. --- مازال اتين اخرين. عم بعضهم. طرابلس هدي طلعت عار ---- غير عادي بكل. ياريت قعدوا غادي و حبلوا عليهم و قعدوا غادي و خلاص.

شن العار اللي داروه ----- ايه فيه طياش من الشباب. تورة, انت قالع نضام, كيف مافيش طياش؟ انت في سن المراهقة يانادر درت شوي؟ انت لو جاتك هدي في سن المراهقه - ... تبالله فروخ طرابلس مش تاراي فيهم؟ والله هدولا مايسو حاجه اكبر سقاط.

..... غير راجي... هما مراقبين الشباب و الله اكبر عليهم و جتهم في طرابلس و انفتحت طرابلس .....

بالهي اعماك تو ---- ماهيش كلها انبياء. ---- تو في الواجهه محسوب عليك كل شي. والله ---- تو محسوب عليها كل شي, كل حاجه, بيحاربوها. لما نبدا امقعمزين غادي اندافعوا و انقولو كذب.....

شن علاش ايقولوك اللي دافعت عليه؟ البوات خدوهم بيدر عانهم. التريس مووتو. انتم قولولهم ياكلاب جماعة طرابلس اللبوات محطوطات بحداكم ماقدرتوش تقربوهم لين خشت التريس فراسين ابدرعانها و خدت اللبوات و صحتين.

باهي اعماك في هذا كله لكن اتجي لمواطن اتنزله و تضربه هذا اللي نحكيك عليه.

خدوهم بدرعانهم الفرسان .... نازلين من الجبل و هما يضربوا في المكياطة و ايفوتوا عليهم امقيلين قو لا في حياشهم, امحيت خشت التريس لباب العزيزية و خشت لنقلية و خشت للمطاريح الحكومية و جاهدوا و هكى صدورهم متلقين به الرصاص فيه اللي مات و فيه اللي طلع ابلبوة.

باه. بعد ماهدت الامور؟ قاعدة في حوايز المؤيدين ماهمش ضاهرين منهم.

الحوايز هدولا لمن ايتخلوا؟ لسحانيين. واحد اتنين صارتلهم المشكلة.

مافيش ماهدنتش الامور.

انت مصر قالعين رايس و تونس قالعين رايس و قاعد فيهم الموت و فيه انقلابات و الدنيا متقلقه, انت قالع نضام بالكامل عمره 42 سنه. باهي تعتبر ليبيا على المستوى هدوا 100 % , تعتبر امساويه.

انت تو خشيت لطريق اخرى. اسمعوا جماعة---- اسمعوا جماعة طرابلس اسمعوا زوارة و شفوا الخنبة. نحنا امقعمزين في هالمربوعة و نسمعوا شن داروا ---- بس. انا نسمع في ..... هدولا قدامي كلهم في الفيس بوك و نعرف شن قالوا, لكن ----- ايجاربا فيها انت ماتعطيهمش فرصه بالش ايجاربا فيها – ايجاربا فيك كلهم. ---- دارت حاجه, تعرف تشبح صفحات الفيس بوك الكلها تلقاها انتشرت.

هدي المفروض تفرح بيها انت, امحيت ---- ظهر سبه ---- , هدي راخوا رفاعة فوق لانه مهم. حتى انت لما بيدوا يتكلموا عليك الاعلام ويدوروا في ---- انت راك بتشد دوله. بالمقابل كلنا يعرفونا الناس. لما الزنتان ناضت بدوا ايقولوا الزنتان وين – مايعرفوهاش.

بالمقابل حاول اتقلل من المشاكل الفردية.

الكلام انقولوا فيه في بعضنا و لما نبدا برا راهو اندافعوا – هذا كله انقولوا فيه لكن في بعضنا. فيه حاجات زي ما قالك انت في الواجهه ايدوروا فيك حتى ---- يطلع في الحمراء بيدو الكل يتكلموا عليها.

باهي اكويس, يتكلموا بيك لانك زنتاني, ايلواه قبل ماتكلموش عليك؟ انت فرضت نفسك.

الناس اللي تحكي عليها – اللي ماتت – واشحوروا واللي قاعده اتمرد في السبط و تلاقى في الرصاص ماتجيش انت بي البارد وتنزل الواحد من سيارته و تنقز لواحد في حوشه.

هدي حاجات فردية لكن انت ماتحسبهاش عالبلاد.

لكن الناس تحسب فيها عليك.

احنا يكفي كلمه واحده قلناها – لما بنغازي نايطه على المحامي احنا قلنا يسقط النضام و مانرجعناش و مافيش كلب في لبيبا قالها. كانا واحد نزل عائلة انقولوا واك الزنتان فسدت؟! .....

..... بالنسبه ---- حتى امحيت كان النضام كانوا ايقولوا احدر (22 – 5), هدي مش غريبة علينا و عندنا شباب طايش و منو للي يتكلم؟

كلها اتناقش فيك, برا خش الفيس بوك. انت تو طلعا ---- هي اللي ظالمه -----.

انا ديما امحيت في طرابلس في لقراية ايقولوا بالله الزنتان قداش عددهم, قتلهم عددنا اربعين الف, طلعا الشيايين, طلعا العزايز, طلعا الصغار, راهوا اللي ايقاتلوا مايجوش كانا بكل 3000- يستغربوا. هما مستغربي فيها كيف ابليدة زي هدي امفلسه ما عندها شئ و الله الا قال عندهم الحق اللي اتنوضوا. اناقشوا فيهم زي تو. هداكا الوقت امحيت يضرب فينا بالجراد و انت تضحك و اتوري في روحك في التلفزيون و معمر و بس.

الكتيبة امتع انصار الحق وبن؟

حاربوها.

في النهاية فيه قانون اللي تقدر عليه هويينا فيه ستين الف واحد شادينهم و برا سالموم لدوله. انا وين يقتل واحد و تشدة ايسلموا فيه هويينا امتع ----- .واللي قاعد في طرابلس هداكا محسوب على طرابلس.

تو فيه كلام انقولوا في بعضنا و عما البرانيه انقولوا احرف من الكلان اللي قلته انت.

لما تبدا باين على الشاشة تبدا فيه ناس اخرى, حركتك محسوبه.

ايواه نتفق عماك في النقطة هيا. عندنا مخانب معروفه هدي.

امحيت ايقولك ---- توجعك و اطيرلك, هدي النفروض احنا انتقبلوها بكل روح رياضية و انقولوا حتى انتم عندكم.

وهذا انقولوا فيه احنا.

زمان فيه اللي ايبيع في الحشيش فيه اللي ايبيع في الزرابيط و فيه اللي ايبيع في الحبوب و اللي يخنب في السيارات في كل مكان تلقى فيه و ---- جزء من هالوجيج حتى في ايامات الرسول امحيت كان فيه الصحابه و كان جبريل ينزل يوميا كانت فيه ناس تخنب.

بالنسبه للبوات هادي ماهي خنبة. هادي لولا اللبوات و الدبل قابينة هادي اللي ديما في الجبهة راهو متحركش. اما الحنبة لما اتجي لواحد في حوشة في حوازته و في معرضة هديكا خنبة. لكن السيارات اللي الناس اتحارب بيها .....

تو المونطوات هدولا الرباعيات لاقيينهم في الجبهة؟..... قاراج في النقلية امصكر ليه قداش و وين فتحوه لقوه امعبي, دارو بتارية لواحد ولع ..... تو الموطوات اللي ايدورو بيهم في النقلية لاقيينهم؟ و الله الا اينزلوا فيهم الا من اماليهم.

هدولا الرباعيات هدولا حوازة في صرمان و الا وين تبع القدافي لقوها ممروطه.

في جبهة الكريمة قالك لقوا واحد عنده لبوه – قالمهم شاربيها – امنين قالولا شاربيها – قالمهم عندي فلوس داسهم – ز هفوله كبده – في الاخير طلع متطوع. بالنسبة للبوو الزنتان و الله ان شاء الله تبا شاربيها و الله الا ماينزلوك منها. ....

في الفيس بوك ايصوروك هكا, شوف ---- دار و دار و اينزلوها في الفيس بوك. ماهو ايدوروك فيها, ايجاربو فيك.

جهال , اوكانهم مش غفل مش قعد شاكير يصحك عليهم هو وحمزة التوهامي و احنا ايهبكوا فينا بالجراد و هما يصحكوا ايقولو حق. سياسة ---- انضرت. باهي كيف تراه, هاهم داروا نصرت الحق, داروا الشورى, داروا لجنة رد المظالم, شن بتدير تاني؟ و قالك احما هدولا اللي قاعدين راقدين في طرابلس اللي مثلا في حوازه و ايدير في المشاكل , قال هذا المفروض عنده ناسه و عياله ايردوه. و داروا فيه بيان قالوا هلي ايدير مشكلة راهو فيه قانون و احنا ماناش مستعدين انحاموا عليه, موجود هذا البيان داروه.

---- اعلامها ميت. انت تو قالك تو امطلعين ---- هي اللي ضالمه ---- علاش – الدولة اتحارب. بلاد تامه اتحارب فيك. .... ماتحاربت فيك بلاد تامه, الدوله مانحكش في الفيس بوك.

..... ---- طلعوهم الجرحى امتاعهم بسبب سؤ استعمال.

---- راقده.

هي تو سمعوا بيها , تو كيف سمعوا بيها.

حتى مش ازلام, كلها انحارب فيك, ---- اتحارب فيك لان ---- حسنت انها هي انطفت شمعتها في الجبل خدتها. .... معرفه قصتها, ---- جو عما ---- ز ---- هي من زمان تاريخها معروف.

..... راهو الايام بيناتنا تمشي تمشي و تنقلب عليهم. هو الحق حيطلع.

..... بوسيفي و عن طريق الامارات. بوسيفي خواله ---- , هداكا الوقت لما كان يقروا بيعث. قال انا راهو المدة اللي فاتت ..... بدو هو ايتعاملوا عماء. هذكا النهارات داروا الجماعة قالوا بانحاولوا ايديرونا حتى اداعة مسموعة.

..... لكن --- معروفين هذا علاش ماعرفوش كيف يخترقوها. قالك ---- ماعرفناش كيف انشدوها, منو القايد امتعهم. قالك ما عش عرفوش كيف يخترقوها. مزبوطه هدي و الله الا امحلينها 100%. زي امحيت لما شدوا سيف. اللي شاده ---- و جماعة, يحسابوه هو الوحيد, لقزه ابيه.

..... الحمد لله هويانا بعد ما طلوعوا شوي جو ..... خشوه في نص ساعة قربعوه هويانا بعدين خشت ----

.... و الله ماهم امدرين. مشيت غادي ندهور, ---- جابدين في جبهة, ---- شادين جبهة. هداك ايبيع و يشري و يضحك ز ماعنداش فيها.

..... و اللي ايشدوه ايعاملوا فيه كويس. خلاص م..... متكلموش عليها.



..... لما طلعت هداكا الوقت جابوها في الاعلام. اكيده عماه مستشارين قالوله برا ارقد في المستشفى.  
الاعلام ايغطي عملية البعج و ينسى. ايدير في برنامج القذافي. احييت بيذا الناس واقضه للمجلس ايدفلك حاجة  
تلها فيها. ماهو انت ما عندكش دليل على عبدالجيل هربه. ماهو هدا الغباء.

هو ----- قال احنا سلموهونا المجلس, شن دخل -----؟

بدابيتها متهمين ----- و قالوا انت ----- قولنا فهمنا انت طلعا و لا قالهم لا و مستعد اناطح اي حد في المجلس.  
..... قاله كيف اتفوت حاجة زي هدي؟

..... طلع شن خدا و يسمعوا في الكلام في الاداعة و ----- تقلدوه و هو صكر ادماغة قالهم شي ايتحاكم هنا,  
و حتى الزنتان نزلت عليه هلبا قالك سلموه كان ابهريهوه خلي يهريهوه.

..... تعرف غادي كلمت بكري واحد قال جماعة ----- متقلدين ----- حش. و الله قالي -----  
طقل يرفعوا فيهم, مجموعة كبيرة رافعيها.

حق ----- رموا عليهم؟ ماضنيش, لا بذا في الاول جت غمه لقوا عندهم سلاح. ....

----- و ----- و ----- هدولا هما اللي كانو ناويين ايكسروهم. ....

..... واحد قالهم بالله انتم شن هدفنا من الثورة؟ شم اللي حصلناه من الثورة؟

قلقنا منه! 40 عام فلوسنا ياسرة و ناروا فيها رايحة. .... ياودي خلينا منه هداكا ليه عام و في  
ليبيا كلها, انت شن الزنتان الواه ناضت؟ شم اللي حصلته سنه كاملة, ما حصلنا شي.

ماهي مازال ماقامتش الدوله. كنا نضغطو عليه, تمعقوله انت تعطي في فلوس! ايه بالنسبه لتعويضات هدي من  
زمان تكلموا عليها. تعطيني للثوار اللي قاعدين امعارضين اليا تو تعطيه فلوس زي زيه!!

انت قاعد في مرحلة انتقالية, لما اتم المرحلة الانتقالية هدي معش اببيدا فيه تقل, ابتبدا وزارة منتخبة, تو عندك  
تقل. انت مش انا ابسيلة مؤقت, كانك مؤقت كيف امالا تصرف في لفلوس, من عطاك الحق؟ مندوبنا وين?  
نزلوا عليه المدة اللي فاتت. خيرا لا علق لا تكلم! .....

عنده مشكله هو وياه طلع شن اموقله. المهم صارت اشكالية.

----- علاش ما يحطوهش عضو؟ قالوا هداك الوقت مشى لتونس, دفعوا بيه قالهم لا, حطو ----- .

منوا اللي حطه؟

----- راجل مليون و يعرف ايتكلم و عارفينه و معروف حتى في بنغازي كان شاد محافظ بنغازي.

نحكياك اللي صار, بعد ما هفتت لامور, جو دارو لجنه سياسية ----- و اشتكلوت هما و الشورى. ----- اللي  
كوبس شاكربنه حتى لوطى في طرابلس.

انا مفهمتش علاش ----- ما حظز هس غادي..... ماهو جاء اموخر.

## B- facebook extracts

الزنتان فيس بوك

الأخبار التي وصلتني ان الشباب ألي تم اعتقالهم فرجوا عليهم وهذا الخبر جاني عن طريق اتصال بأحد ---- في ---- الساعة واحد ونصف ليلا.

ما اظنش هجوم على المخازن , تقريبا فيه سيارات بكري مبلغين عليهم هاربات من المخازن وطلعت مجموعة يحصروا فيهم ,, وعلى كل ان شاء الله ربي ينصرنا عليهم

- الامور تمام والله الحمد , والبلاد هانية وبدت الناس تروح من تونس , البارح الجماعة رصدوا رتل خاش للمخازن , وداروله كمين ومحاصرينهم وفيه انباء انهم تمكنوا من غنم شاحنة ذخيرة

فيه موضوع إنفتح اليومين اللي فاتو و قلتوا إن الأخ ----- أتصل بالأخ ----- و مدايرين برنامج جمع تبرعات لشهر رمضان و الاخ ----- مذكور إسمه في هذه القائمة .... هل فيه جمعية ثانية غير هاذي

مش القصة يا ---- في يرقدوا و الا ما يرقدوش القصة ممكن المشروع ايطير من---- و بعدين الخبر في القناة شن فايدته تحساب الناس بيفرحولك لا و الله هما هكي و مش ناجيين منهم ما بال اتزيدها مطار و قبل يوم حاطين خبر تعيين ----- كسفير ل----- فوتوها حاجات زي هذه مش لصالحنا نتكلموا عليها

المده اللي فانت طلعو لتونس اتصلوا بيا قالولي ---- شكات لجنة اعلاميه وسمولى اسماء قالو هدمو اللي اختارتهم ----- وبنديرو صفحة على الفيس بوك اسمها المركز الاعلامي هي المتحدث الرسمي ---- او انغيرو قناة ----- تبغ اللجنة الاعلاميه

قلتلهم قناة ----- ما عندكمش علاقه بيها وانحنا جماعه القناة حاجة اسمها لجان ما نخدش تحتها وما نبشش من ايقيدنى وايوجعلى راسى وييدا يعطى فيا فى الاوامر----- و---- و---- و---- انطققو من هنا وانديرو فى الصفحات الثانيه كان فيه حاجة على ---- و---- و---- و---- ايططقو من---- وايصوروا وايجيولنا فى الاخبار وما نبوش حتى من يذكرنا لانريد منكم جزء ولا شكورا وانتم افتحوا صفحتكم وشوفو ارواحكم المهم فى الاخير كلنا نخدموا ----- ونظهروا صورة -----

وتوا اللجنة المحترمة اللي على كلامهم شكلتها ----- ايتناقرو فى ---- وايساسوا

ت باهى مش انتم لجنة وين ميزانيتكم؟؟

باهى كان النت بيفصل عليك مش الاولى انك اتجى لجماعه ----- واتعالج امعاهم المشكله والا تمشى اتقعمز فى فندق تيبستى وتبدا تطلب

والله شى ايزهف الكبد هالدراهات

واللى امنزل اليوست هذا 100% ولد ----. لان اول ما قالولى انه معاهم فى اللجنة قلتلهم ربي ايعاون

المفروض مسأله زى هذه اتناقش داخليا قبل لا تطرح فى الصفحات امام الناس وانت لجنة وليك قيمتك

قسم بالله مرات اتشوف شى اتقول من غير ابيوش ترشق جد امه فى الكمبيوتر وتطلع من الموضوع ببش

معادش اتشوف شى ولا تسمع شى

كان شدوه رسمى المفروض تاكيد الخبر ولكن لا يستحق لقاء تلفزيونى ولا ان ايكبروا بيه لان صرصور ومن

يكون ايديروا معاه لقاء شكل زى هذا الشيله وبس

مش سكر وهم القنوات معاش فهمننا



فيه موضوع انطرح الايام اللي فاتت

- اعتقد انه مازال لان فيه اشياء تصلح غادي لانها كانت مقر سرية جماعة ال----- و ---- و ---- يا شباب موضوع ال----- و ---- انتهى و حياطلقوا سراح المخطوفين و يسلموا الجناة و المطلوبين و الاسلحة اللي عندهم و حئتشكل لجنة من مختلف ثوار ليبيا للتمشيط غير محددة بفترة زمنية

صدقوني لو مايفيقوش حبيدوا منبودين في المجتمع

الرد كان من ---- والرد متاع ---- راح ينتشر في المواقع... مش راح اندوا عليه رسميا في مواقع تانية... لان حتى السكوت عليه مش كويس

اليوم الشكارة كلها بتنفرش علي الطاولة، مجهودكم يا جماعة القناة و المركز... خلي نقيموها به

يا ودي شكله ---- جاته اشاره انهم بينطروه وانت طبيته جت على راسه وراس عياله..توا الحل شنو

حتى ---- قالو بيطروه شوره بات ليهم في الخطوطه كل ما يشد المايك يشهدر بيهم ومن يومها حسيت بيها الشى هذا بيصر وتبي هجمه استياقيه وريت انه اصدار بيان بانه لازم ثبت اجتماعات المجلس الوطني مباشر بما انه يوازي البرلمان من منطلق الشفافيه والمشاركه او عدم الاعتراف باى قرارات المجلس في ضل التعيين هذا

لكن كذبها ، مطار بنينة مازال ماتسلمش

شن هالسبتوله يا ---- .. ماتنقراش بكليا دكتور ---- ، انقالت فيما فات ، شهر 6 سيشهد جبهات قتال زي اللي كانت في شهر 4 و 5 والتسليح على قدم وساق من كل الليبيين

---- نعرفه اكويس ومن أصل ---- واستاذ في كلية الصيدلة طرابلس لادن مش عارف ليش حولوه والله زمان نعرفوه راجل باهي لادن هاليومين اللي تحسابه موسى يطلع فرعون وان شاء الله خير

---- مورط ناس هلبة ومزال يخدم ضدى الثورة ولقد ورط خوه محمد في هالقصة وثم القبض عليه والمشكلة انهم جبدوا ناس اخرى من ---- ولكن لا اخبار عن تورط ---- في هالقصة ولكن ---- نشيط في اعمال ضدى الثورة الى الان

المزبوط انهم يعترفوا ويندار لهم دعاية مضادة,,, مش يعتبروا من ازلام النظام,,, الي قبل في الامانات والموتمرات ضروري ما تتعرض أسمائهم

؟؟؟ منو اللي تبوه يضاف؟

هلي متعوض في حاجة هذه خلاص معادش ولت من حقه ولي نعرفه الارض هلي داخل المخطط كلها متعوضين فيها رغم ان التعويض ماكانش مجزي لكن متعوض ومش حركة اتجي توا وتاخذها من جديد

بالنسبة لارض المثابة هي ( ---- ) وما عوضوهمش فيها وصارت عليها زمان مشكلة وحاولوا ابوقفوا حتى مبنى المثابة لكن زي ما انتم عارفين مثابة من يقدر ابوقفها زمان

المنفذ الوحيد اللي تسلم مطار طرابلس خيركم سكتم بعدها شني حرام على ---- وحلال على الميليشيات الأخرى وللعلم صديقي في لجنة الجرد على ممتلكات المطار قبل مايطلعو ثوار ---- منه قالي مانحوش منه رشادة والشركة البررازيلية بعثت رسالة شكر ليهم للحفاظ على أليات المطار ؛ نبي نقولكم بس اللي شادها في جرت ---- باش يطلعو منه ويلهو الناس فيهم هم أزلام القذافي في طرابلس { الأم الحنون للمتسلقين } فالسجون اللي ماتسلمتش للدولة أهم من مطار طرابلس ولذلك مش حيتفاعل القضاء وهذا من مصلحة من طبعا أزلام القذافي؛وربي يرحم شهداء المطار

المفروض ايشدوه المجرم هذا ويقلبو عليه الدنياوزي مقال احي----- لازم ينشد المجرم .... وتندار عليه ضجه باش مايبوها اعلاميه مرئية...ياش يشوفوا من هما المليشيات

يا ----- لو قاعين بحداك قولهم الصرف وقف مؤقتاً لين بيعدلوا نموذج التسجيل والصرف حالياً للشيكات اللي تعبت فقط وفيه تعديل الايام الجاية على قصة انه ما يكونش موظف ، اعتقد بيقلعوه الشرط هذا

ان شاء الله خير, لو الكلام صحيح ان ----- بيفتح الشكارة, حا يطلع غير وطني و لا يهم شي الا شخصه و هذه حرب شخصيه... احنا علي ابواب الانتخابات و اي شي خطير يمكن يؤثر علي الانتخابات و يكون ----- ضلع فيه.. خلاص يا سيدي مش قلت انك ساعي بريد خلاص اقعدها الشهر هذا لين يتم علي خير و بعدين ان شاء الله لكل حادثة حديث, ساكت علي 6 شهور كملهم بشهر.

بالنسبة ليا انشوف في فترة وجود ----- في الوزارة كانت ناجحة رغم كل الظروف هلي اتمر بيها ليبيا صح كان فيه ضغط كبير على الوزارة و وصل الضغط على ----- لكن نجح في حقن الدم وعدم تفاقم المشاكل وما كان احسن مما كان ... اما بقان الشكاره فهذا موضوع لازم منه مش يبو الشفافية خلاص خلي يتحمل كل شخص مسؤوليته ... واذا كانت الانتخابات واقفة على تصريح من جويلي معادش نبوهم انتخابات بتصريح يتفرسوا!!!!

فيه مشكلة في تعليقاتي تنحذف ، مش عارف علاش ؟!!!!  
يا ----- هي قالت الكلام هذا خوفاً من حقوق النشر ، ومرات عندهم نسخة خاصة بيهم ، خونا ----- هو ادري مني بخصوص المكالمات

المشكلة يا ----- ينحذفوا عشوائياً

قبل يومين في هناقر قاعدين فيهم جماعة ----- جنب معسكر الأمداد بمنطقة السواني التابع للأركان وكانوا الهناكر معبية بصناديق زيت محرقات وفي مجموعة سمعو بالموضوع لقطو بعضهم وجو يبو يخنبو المقر طبعاً جماعة ----- هربو أول ماصار فيها الرمي طلعلهم طابط ----- من باب الوطنية أعتقد أسمه ----- بيكلمهم وستر ربي ماقتلوشى قبل بيقيموه قاللهم ----- باش طلقوه طلع عقيد من المعسكر حتى هو بيكلمهم لقبه - --- ضربوه بالأخمس على ظهره وركبوه في الكوفى وبدو في الرمي في الهوا ويصيحو وينه اللي بيوقف --- اللي نازل بأغراض واللى بقوادف بدو يتصلو ببعضهم وصكرو الطريق ورمية في السيمافرو وفي راجل وقف يقصقص وفي واحد في أيده اغراض عامة لما تأنفت لقي سيارة تحركت طول أندار كسكسها كلها واحتمال أنه الراجل مات وكان في واحد يبي يفجرها بأر بي جى غر الجماعة قالوله فوته ولما أتصلو ----- جماعة المعسكر عن طريق الأركان على أساس أنه الهناقر تحت سيطرة جماعته قاللهم شن بنديرلهم هما خلو الدنيا كلها...وقعدى قريب يومين ينقلو في الزيت من الهناقر التابعة للدولة

.....  
بالله لي عندا خلفية على الموضوع هل صار ولا .....لان هذا اسمه ظلم وسرقة

لا حولة لا قوة الا بالله, يا ----- الكلام غير صحيح... القصة ان الجماعة اللي كانوا فيه (طرابلسية), خنبوه و هربوا و بعدين سمعوا به الناس بدت تجي من كل مكان و لاكثرية من طرابلس صح فيه ----- لكن قلة المهم هما كلهم 2 مخازن فيهم الزين و قراب المياه و اماطير ميه.... لحد الان مازالوا مفتوحات و الناس ترفع

- يا شباب بي غض النظر على الموضوع انا نشوف ان في بعض الشباب السفهاء حا يكونوا سبب في هلاك ----- ....من ظلم وشرب وتعدي على الحرمات ....وكان ما نوقفوهم عند حدهم حا يكون شر على المدينة واهلها

أخطر شيء المجاهرة بالمعصية و في----- أصبح حديد التمشيط " المخنوب بالعربي" مفخرة و مظهر من مظاهر الثراء

----- الكلب لازم ينجاب ويتحقق معاه

باهي كيف ماتكلم حد عليه ---- هذا ؟ والله المفروض ينجاب ل---- وإلا في أرضه طول ، شن طاحت بينا للدرجة هذه  
-----؟؟؟؟؟ أكره حاجة أنه يموت حد تحت التعذيب ، جيبو الحيفة حاشاكم وخلي يتحاكم ويتصفي في ----

- لجماعة يخدموا بقلب لأنهم مهجرين وهذا شيء بيحصل بالتأكيد .... لأنه معاش وراء هم الا الحيط قاعدين في مدراس  
وحياش أقاربهم وصغارهم من غير قرابة وبرا ..... لازم يندار لهم حل مستعجل أو ح تصير حرب .... وأكد نحس  
فيهم بيقوموا بأشياء انتحارية مثل عودتهم بصغارهم ونساوينهم ---- بين ليلة وضحاها  
○ حتى توا كنت مع واحد من جماعة المفوضية .. قال حتتأجل تلقائياً لأن لجنة النزاهة والشفافية ما  
تلحقش تكمّل التعزيب مع المرشحين ... وعلى فكرة قال ---- اللي قدموا أنفسهم 143 وحالياً  
غربلوا منهم وأصبحوا

يا شباب فيه تنبيه لازم تداركه .. فيديو امس لشقيق ---- الله يرحمه وهو يحكي القصة .. طلع  
البنغشيري حي ووصل ---- البارح وقاعد يتعالج .. وهو اللي حكي القصة .. حيتم التركيز على  
الفيديو من هذا الباب من قبل المشككين .. طبعاً ولتضارب الانباء امس لا بد من التنبيه ان  
البنغشيري اصابته كبيرة لكن لازال على قيد الحياة وتم نقله لمستشفى ---- وحكى القصة .. لا بد  
من قفل هالثرغره اللي فاتتنا امس بهالطريقه

حالياً نجهزو في اماكن للمصابين في مصحات تونس لو وصلونا على السريع ،،، بالله لو عندكم  
اي معلومة انه فيه اي حد حيتم نقله لتونس بيلغنى و نجهزوله عيادة

لما يكون عندك مجلس منتخب أي شيء يديره يمشي عليك لأنك إنت اللي إنتخبته و لكن بالطريقة عدم الإكتراث و  
اللامبالاة و العصيان سيبقى هو السمة السائدة في البلاد

الانتخابات بتجيب ناس أخرى وبيضيع اللي خدماته الناس الأولى ، خليها راحة توا وبعدين ساهل ، هذا رأيي

اللي في المجلس توا شادينهم بجداهه بيقطعوا ما يبوهش .. ومافيه حد يبطوع ويشد المجلس كلها مفلكه عارفاته حرق  
اعصاب وطياح قدر .. انا رايبى انه غير ما يولوش المخانب الاولين اكله باهى .. مصيبه ---- الان هي المفرخ الضايغ  
اللي يخب ويكسر ويخربش ويزبل ومش قاده شي

ياصديقي ياغلام : علي حسب كلامك بعد انتخاب المجلس المحلى الكاسوات بيحلقو والبوبات بتتفعل .. و---- بيلتزم  
..والكولاصة لوبي الشعبية بيشدو الجامع ..انت تبي العنب والا بتقتل الناظور ...---- بن ---- من اسبوع قدم  
استقلالته .... نتلاقو بعد الفطور يا علي القبة ياعلي الفيس السكر في ادناء مستوى له الان

مناطق الثورة بنغازي و مصراتة و الزاوية كلها دارت إنتخابات و أعطت الثقة في أبنائها و اعطتهم الفرصة و إحنا الثقة  
يعطو هالك بالتزكية من جهات معينة ..... زعمة الليبيين كلهم ما يفهموش إلا إحنا فاهمين العملية صح

● امس صارت عمليه اعتداء على شيباني من ---- عنده تيوتا كبش امعبيها تبين وفايت بيه لشيهاه في جيهه فرقه  
صرمان لهدوا عليها فروخ هالحرام نزلوه منها وفكوها منه  
حسب كلامه لهجتهم من ---- !

اول امس واحد من ---- عنده لبوه جاى ---- ايدور في دواء من الصيدليه لحقوه فروخ ---- وصارت عليه  
رمايه في جيهه الاحرش بيفكوا منه السيارة وحده من الرصاصات الطايشه جت في مصرى بين الحياه والموت  
والقصه صارت قبل المغرب بالشويه يعنى خلاص معادش لا ايتحشمو ولا يستحوا  
واستعدوا كل يوم لسماع خارقه جديده من وراء الكاصكات لمقمله اللي مازال ما حلقوش روسهم وطبقوا  
بنادقهم وشدوا اعمالهم ودكاكينهم زى التريس الانقر اللي كان ايجاهد بجديات ايام --- و---- لما هما كانوا  
عاقسين في ----

حتى امس قناة ---- جيبه الخبر وتدفع على ---- بكل قوة ■

----- قولهم انتوا تدافعوا على----- باهي شن وضع -----انا معاش عرفت ها الفئة الكادية امس خاطفين  
منك اعلاميين وطالع تقول الحرب الحرب واليوم طالع تدافع يا والله نفاق وخلص

كلمت الشباب و اكدولي ان المقبوض عليهم من ----- مصابين, يعني كانوا من اللي يحاربوا فينا في المعركة  
الاخيرة.

هذاك الراجل معلق ورقه سريته في ---- و ابرأ ذمته

يا-----د المدة الاخيرة المجلس فاتح باب شراء الذخيرة ، أي ذخيرة بشرها

الذخيرة والحمد لله كاثرة وحتى اللي في جبهة----- تعوضت كلها واكثر وفيه ناس تخدم بصمت جابت ذخيرة هلبة ...  
لعلمكم طلغوا 1300 صاروخ راجمة من ----- من دشمة ضاربها ----- معلومة اكيدة ورزرزوا عليها

اما سرايا طرابلس اكد سار فيها اللهب واما سرايا -----دوبها دوب الثوار والاكثر يا رجعوهم للمصرف بعد التحريم  
وشفنا بعض السرايا لما درنا الحسبة لاقينلها صحيحة وبرقم البطاقة والبصمة عملية التسليم والله اعلم ببقية السرايا

هو الحقيقة بالنسبة لعدد ثوار ---- و المبلغ المسحوب باسمهم غير كافيه لتغطيتهم جميعا. نحن مازال نلحقوو الحكومة  
في ملايين شوفوا----- . ساحبين 20 مليون

نحن اول المتضررين الفلوس بيد من لايقدر قيمتها متر ارض البناء تجاوز ال50 دينار و----دونا عن باقي المناطق  
ولعت فيها النار والمشكلة اللي خدوا الفلوس ماشفناهمش في اي جبهة والثوار الصناديد قعدوا على الهامش

يا----- نفرض أنك مسحت بيهم في القناة و بعدين جابوا براءة ذمة زي ما تبي .... إنت كيف بتسحب كلامك من القناة بعد  
ما يكون المئات نقلوه و نسخوه ..... الامر ---- بحث و الموضوع إنتشر في ---- و يجب أن يعالج داخل ---- لا  
على صفحات الفيسبوك

بالنسبة لقصة اليد العاملة عالية هادي ساهلة و تبي ناس جادة ..... على سرايا الأمن أو سرية أنصار الحق يتعاونوا مع  
جماعة الحرس و يفرضوا على العمال العمل بالتسعيرة و يعلموا الناس أنهم ما يعطوش العمال أكثر من التسعيرة و اللي  
مش عاجبة يبلغوا عليه و يحولوه على الجوازات و يديروله كروش على جوازه ..... تدبرها لواحد و إلا إثنين يطببوا  
الباقين لأنهم جايين من بلادهم جايين و العمل بالتسعيرة أفضل عندهم من المرواح لبلادهم

الضي كان هارب من الساعة 6 كيف رجع الان ... رمضان كله ماهربش الضي الا البارح هرب وزادها اليوم  
فطرنا علي الشماعي جو لاقوة الا بالله

حسب عملي جايين طربينة كبيرة لمحطة الرويس ... بالك هي يركبوا فيها

يا ----- امتي رد المجلس متاع -----؟؟؟ هم حتى على الطحالب ما ردوش بيردوا على هذا اللي محسوب على ---- ,,  
وهنا الخطورة , لما يكتب شيء على ---- وهو معروف عنه ميوله ل---- معناها الكلام صحيح ...  
الرجل هذا كذاب بيكذب على الليبيين سلامته وقلة سوّه عنده قناته ينشر فيها اللي بيبيه , لكن ما بيداش يتبلى ويكذب ويدف  
في المراكب ل----- ..هنا لا زم يا يوقفوه اللي رابطين عماه .. يا ياكل ما كتب الله في القناة باش يستيقن ..

مادامنا عارفين العلة وبن ندوروا في العلاج في مكان ثاني علاش ..... حكاية أضربه عالنتين باش ينسى الشعير تمشي  
في امور و في امور لا

أمس المديع أمتع استوديو العاصمة داير لقاء مع عضو زليتن في المؤتمر الوطني دقله طاجين قائله المكتبة رفعوها  
لطرابلس ... عشش فيه قائله خلاص انتو العاصمة اللي قلتوا المكتبة رفعوها لطرابلس خلاص جيبنا المصدر اتمتك  
الحقيقة برد شوية .... الجماعة بدت الدف في الطواجين ما تبيش الا التخوف