

RP
00131
c.1

**The Effect of Diglossia on Vocabulary Acquisition in Arabic of
Lebanese Bilingual Students in a Private School in Kfarshima**

A Project Presented to the Faculty of

The Education Division

In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree of

Masters of Arts in Education

Emphasis: Special Education

By

Olfat Darwiche Fedda

Under the Direction of

Dr. Ahmad Oueini

Lebanese American University

June, 2010

OLFA 177336



LEBANESE AMERICAN UNIVERSITY

Project Approval Form

Student Name: Olfat Darwiche Fedda I.D.: 200700017
Project Title: The Effect of Diglossia on Vocabulary Acquisition in Arabic or
Lebanese Bilingual Students in a Private School in Kfarshima
Program : MA in Education
Division/Dept : Education
School : Arts and Sciences - Beirut

Approved by:

Project Advisor: Ahmad Oueini, Ed.D. _____

Committee Member: Rima Bahous, Ed.D. _____

Date: June 10, 2010

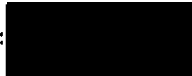
Plagiarism Policy Compliance Statement

I certify that I have read and understood LAU's Plagiarism Policy. I understand that failure to comply with this Policy can lead to academic and disciplinary actions against me.

This work is substantially my own, and to the extent that any part of this work is not my own I have indicated that by acknowledging its sources.

Name: Olfat Darwiche Fedda

Signature:



Date: June 10, 2010

I grant to the LEBANESE AMERICAN UNIVERSITY the right to use this work, irrespective of any copyright, for the University's own purpose without cost to the University or its students and employees. I further agree that the University may reproduce and provide single copies of the work to the public for the cost of reproduction.

*To all Arabic professors and teachers who want to emphasize vocabulary
acquisition in an educational system that is neglected*

*To my parents and husband for their endless support and
motivation to reach my goal*

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to thank everyone who believed in me and supported me through my journey of success.

I would like to convey my very deep appreciation to Dr. Ahmad Oueini who was my role model throughout my masters program. Thank you for your patience, support, time, and guidance. Thank you for believing in me and for being a great advisor that any student will be honored to have.

I would like to convey my thanks to Dr. Rima Bahous for guiding and supporting me through out my thesis preparation. Thank you for being understanding and for believing in my abilities.

I would also like to thank Mrs. Katia Hazoury for her endless support and help through out my masters program. Thank you for being there for me whenever I needed help and assistance. Thank you for giving me a second chance when I needed it the most. You were, are, and will be one of the best mentors anyone can have.

I can never thank my family, parents and husband, enough for their continuous support, love, kindness, and motivation to be the person I am today. They always wanted the best for me and they were the driving force behind my success. Thank you for your continuous motivation through good and bad times.

I want to thank all my professors who taught me throughout the graduate years for the knowledge they offered me and for helping me shape a better future.

ABSTRACT

The Arabic language is a difficult language to study due to the existence of two varieties within the same language; that is, its diglossic nature. Consequently, vocabulary acquisition in Arabic seems to suffer because both varieties known as standard Arabic and colloquial Arabic are acquired in different ways and are linguistically distant. Only a few vocabulary words are shared by both varieties while all the other vocabulary words of standard Arabic need to be taught in school. Hence, the distance between the two varieties of Arabic affects vocabulary acquisition of the language. No formal studies exist on the relationship between diglossia and vocabulary acquisition. This study includes two objectives. The first objective of this study is to investigate the effect of diglossia on vocabulary acquisition of bilingual Lebanese students in Arabic. The second objective is to determine which vocabulary (Arabic vs. English) students have a preference for. Students' picture vocabulary acquisition was tested in Arabic and English. A correlation design based on a two stage random sample was used. The participants (n = 100) answered orally and in writing, depending on their age level, a subset of the Woodcock Johnson-III Tests of Achievement (Picture Vocabulary). On a second task, they identified orally and in writing, depending on their age level, the names of the different body parts by looking at a drawing of a human figure. The results showed a significant relationship between diglossia and vocabulary acquisition in Lebanese bilingual students. The students showed more confidence in using the English language over Arabic. These findings suggest that teachers need to use different research-based vocabulary strategies to try to tailor to the students' needs and to try to overcome the diglossia challenge related to the Arabic language.

Keywords: Diglossia, vocabulary acquisition, standard Arabic, colloquial Arabic, and educated spoken Arabic.

Table of Contents

- I. Dedication Page**
- II. Acknowledgement Page**
- III. Abstract**
- IV. Chapter One**
 - a. Introduction
 - b. Purpose
 - c. Hypotheses
 - d. Expected Results
 - e. Operational definitions of variables
 - f. Methodology
 - g. Participants
 - h. Tools used
- V. Chapter Two: Literature Review**
 - a. Introduction
 - b. Lexical presentation
 - c. The importance and usage of different vocabulary strategies
 - d. Factors affecting vocabulary acquisition
 - e. The order by which the two varieties in Arabic need to be studied
 - f. Unique challenges of Arabic
 - g. The introduction of educated spoken Arabic (ESA) or formal spoken Arabic
 - h. Educational implications

VI. Chapter Three: Methodology

- a. Research design
- b. Sampling procedure
- c. Ethics
- d. Instruments
- e. Questionnaire
- f. Interview
- g. Implementation of instruments
- h. Internal validity

VII. Chapter Four: Results

- a. Sample characteristics
- b. Picture vocabulary subtest
- c. Body parts test
- d. Group one students vs. Brigance guidelines
- e. Error analysis of body parts test
- f. Discussion
- g. Questionnaire
- h. Interview

VIII. Chapter Five

- a. Conclusion
- b. Limitations of the study
- c. Further research

IX. References

X. Appendices

Chapter One

Introduction

A growing body of evidence shows that a lot of difficulties are experienced by students learning the Arabic language. This is due to its diglossic nature in having two varieties of the same language, the standard Arabic or “fusha” and the colloquial Arabic or “ammiyya” (Versteegh, 2001, p. 189). Standard Arabic is considered to be the ‘high variety’ (H) because it occupies a prestigious position by its Arabic speakers while colloquial Arabic is considered to be the ‘low variety’ (L) because of its common position even though it is considered the mother tongue of its native speakers (Versteegh, 2001, p. 190).

Karl Krumbacher was the first German linguist to introduce the concept of diglossia in 1902. Afterwards, the French linguist William Marçais coined the term diglossia in 1930 (Zughoul & El-Badarien, 2004). Then came Ferguson in 1959 who retackled the concept of diglossia and he was the person who associated the high and low varieties to the language. According to Ferguson, “the most important feature of diglossia is that of the functions the H and L varieties serve and it is the function dimension which puts diglossia in its proper context” (Zughoul & El-Badarien, 2004, p. 447). Although the model of diglossia is to some extent universal, the Arabic model of diglossia has several unique aspects. First, the functions that each variety has are fairly stable. Second, the functions that the language possesses are mainly due to the scale of time. Third, the two varieties of the language are acquired in totally different ways: standard Arabic is usually taught in schools while colloquial Arabic is acquired at home during infancy and childhood. Fourth, the different varieties are related to different positions in the

community which are prestigious and common as explained above. Fifth, standard Arabic and colloquial Arabic are categorized by their H and L varieties where the H variety refers to a wide region and the L variety refers to a narrower region. Sixth, standard Arabic or the H variety is associated with a difficult language structure and colloquial Arabic or the L variety is associated with a simple language structure (Khubchandani, 1985).

Standard Arabic and colloquial Arabic are linguistically distant which is considered as a drawback of diglossia (Saiegh-Haddad, 2003). First, standard Arabic and colloquial Arabic include different phonological systems with similar phonemic inventories. For example, *qalil* which means few in standard Arabic becomes *alil* in colloquial Arabic. The following example illustrates that when standard Arabic words are used in the colloquial form not only the pronunciation becomes different but also some phonemes are altered when speaking in colloquial Arabic (Saiegh-Haddad, 2003, p. 433). In addition, they include different phonological composition of the syllables such as *turab* which is soil in standard Arabic becomes *trab* in colloquial Arabic. This example shows that initial consonant clusters are linguistically erroneous in standard Arabic but are used in colloquial Arabic (Saiegh-Haddad, 2003, p. 433). Second, standard Arabic sentences follow a verb - subject - object word order while colloquial Arabic follows a subject - verb - object word order. For example, according to Saiegh-Haddad (2003, p. 433) a standard Arabic sentence will read as follows: *akala lwaladu tuffaha* which is he ate the boy an apple while a colloquial sentence is written differently with the verb and subject switched. Such as, *lwalad akal tuffaha* or the boy ate an apple. Third, when examining the lexicon of the language, only a few words are shared by both varieties of

the language and the majority of the words need to be formally taught in school (Saiegh-Haddad, 2003). Fourth, standard Arabic encompasses a rich vocabulary system from its source whereas colloquial Arabic has a rich vocabulary system because a lot of words are borrowed from different foreign sources (Maamouri, 1998). The disparity between the two varieties of the language in addition to the complex nature of diglossia (Saiegh-Haddad, 2003), as elaborated above, could be considered factors that may impede students' in studying the language (Ayari, 1996). As a nutshell, according to Abu-Rabia (2000), standard Arabic varies from colloquial Arabic in four main parts of the language which are "vocabulary, phonology, syntax, and grammar" (p. 147). Thus, children are being exposed to standard Arabic at school as if it was a new second language (Abu-Rabia, 2000).

There may be factors other than diglossia which may also hinder Lebanese bilingual students from having good vocabulary foundation. These include how much the Arabic language is emphasized in the curriculum, not having enough interesting resources to use with the children, and parents placing greater emphasis on teaching the children English thus little attention is given to teaching Arabic. Moreover, some standard Arabic words are not encountered in the students' everyday life, not having enough trained Arabic school teachers, and lack of reading at home (Maamouri, 1998) may also affect the students' from having a good vocabulary foundation. However, this study will be restricted to looking at diglossia in relation to vocabulary acquisition in school where the Arabic language is emphasized.

Furthermore, research studies based on vocabulary acquisition are not well focused and more scattered as compared to other parts of the language such as grammar

or phonology (Broady, 2008). This is depicted in research studies related to Arabic vocabulary such as names of different body parts and other picture vocabulary words. Vocabulary learning is regarded as a “key area for independent learner activity as it is a long-term, ongoing endeavour” according to Broady (2008, p. 262). Most of the literature on vocabulary acquisition tackles different learning strategies mainly focusing on English such as the use of “mnemonics” and “inferencing strategies” (Broady, 2008). These are only some examples from a wide array of strategies that can be used to enhance students’ vocabulary learning in English.

This study attempts to answer one main research question: Does diglossia affect vocabulary acquisition in Arabic of Lebanese bilingual students in preschool and elementary school?

Purpose

The study has two purposes. The main purpose is to determine if diglossia impedes the vocabulary acquisition and comprehension of Lebanese bilingual students in the lower elementary mainly KG II, grades I, and II. The second purpose is to determine which language students’ are more confident using its vocabulary.

Hypotheses

This study proposes two main hypotheses. The first hypothesis is that diglossia may have a negative effect on vocabulary development of Lebanese bilingual students. The second hypothesis is that if there is a negative effect, it will disappear with time.

Expected Results

There are no known similar studies that were done on Lebanese bilingual children. This study may have significant benefits since it would address the relationship

between diglossia and vocabulary acquisition, which may provide new ways to enrich the students' vocabulary.

Thus, teachers and parents will be more aware of the effect of diglossia on vocabulary acquisition. Because Arabic is a diglossic language and this might affect vocabulary acquisition, teachers should use more vocabulary strategies to tailor to the vocabulary needs of the students to try to overcome this potential drawback of the Arabic language.

Operational Definitions of Variables

Diglossia is a relatively stable language situation in which, in addition to the primary dialects of the language (standard or regional), there is a very divergent, highly codified (often grammatically more complex) superposed variety, the vehicle of a large and respected body of written literature, which is learned largely by formal education and is used for most written and formal spoken purposes, but is not used by any sector of the community for ordinary conversation (Khubchandani, 1985, p. 199).

Vocabulary acquisition is the ability of the student to attach meaning to a word or picture thus considering it part of the students' vocabulary (Milton & Hopkins, 2006).

Educated Spoken Arabic is a new variety in the Arabic language that resembles both varieties but it is less complicated than standard Arabic and includes to a certain degree the "lexical, morphological and syntactic elements" of colloquial Arabic (Alosh, 1991, as cited in Brosh & Olshtain, 1995, p. 249). This variety is mainly used by the educated sector of the community (Brosh & Olshtain, 1995). **Standard Arabic** is considered as the prestigious variety or the H variety which is the prestigious language of the Quran, and it

is mainly used when writing and in formal situations (Maamouri, 1998). This variety of the language is mainly used in the following situations: school, religious events, writing, political issues, lectures, news, newspapers and poetry (Zughoul & El-Badarien, 2004).

Colloquial Arabic is considered as the common variety or the L variety and is mainly used outside the school context. This variety of the language is mainly used in the following situations: giving instructions in informal settings, talking with family and friends, watching cartoon, and listening to talk shows on the radio (Zughoul & El-Badarien, 2004).

Methodology

Two main research designs were used in this study. First, the correlational research design which allows the researcher to understand and describe relationships that occur naturally without any intervention from the part of the researcher (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2008). In other words, the researcher will test the effect of a naturally existing phenomenon which is the independent variable, diglossia, on how it affects the dependent variable, vocabulary acquisition in Arabic (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). Second, the survey research design was used because it allows the researcher to identify certain traits the sample may possess (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2008) through the use of surveys and interviews. The researcher conducted three interviews with the preschool and elementary Arabic teachers that mainly focused on the use of both varieties, standard and colloquial Arabic, of the language and their use in class. In addition, a questionnaire was administered to the parents to try to gather as much information as possible about the use of both varieties of Arabic with respect to picture vocabulary and to determine which language, Arabic or English, the students are more comfortable with.

Participants

The sample of the study consisted of a 100 students from a private school in Kfarshima, a suburb of Beirut. The students are in the following grades: preschool, KG II, and elementary school, grades one, two, four, and five. The students were randomly chosen from a pool of different ability students in each grade. All of the students are exposed to Arabic, which is their first language, and their second language is English. The sampling technique that is used in this study is a two stage random sampling technique.

Tools Used

Two different instruments were used in this study, which are the following: a body parts test and the picture vocabulary subtest of the Woodcock Johnson Battery of tests. The body parts test consists of a colorful human figure with arrows pointing to all of his different body parts that the students need to identify either orally or in writing depending on their grade level. Each body part needs to be identified by the students in both languages which are English and Arabic. In addition to the body parts test, the picture vocabulary subtest of the Woodcock Johnson Battery of standardized test was also used. The picture vocabulary subtest that was given to the students was made up of 32 colorful pictures whereby the students needed to identify each picture the first time in English and the second time in Arabic. Depending on the students' grade level, the test was done either orally or in writing just like the body parts test. Preschool and lower elementary students (grades one and two) did both tests orally while the upper elementary students (grades four and five) did both tests in writing.

In summary the Arabic language is made up of two varieties. The first variety is the standard or high variety where it is taught at schools. The second variety is the colloquial or low variety which is the children's mother tongue. This diglossic language is made up of unique aspects and both varieties are different in their various language structures such as vocabulary, grammar, and phonology. Arabic vocabulary studies are very scant especially those related to body parts vocabulary or other picture vocabulary. This study is a new study that tries to examine the affect of diglossia on vocabulary acquisition of Lebanese bilingual students in a private school in kfarshima. Two research designs are used: correlational and survey research designs. The participants of the study are 100 students from KG II and grades one, two, four, and five. Two tests were used to collect the data which are: body parts test and the picture vocabulary subtest of the Woodcock Johnson Battery of tests.

In the following chapter the review of the literature may suggest an effect of diglossia on vocabulary acquisition.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

Outline

- I. Introduction
- II. Lexical presentation
- III. The importance and usage of different vocabulary strategies
- IV. Factors affecting vocabulary acquisition
- V. The order by which the two varieties in Arabic need to be studied
 - a. Spoken Arabic followed by modern standard Arabic
 - b. Modern standard Arabic followed by spoken Arabic
- VI. Unique challenges of Arabic
- VII. The introduction of educated spoken Arabic (ESA) or formal spoken Arabic
 - a. Definition and rationale
 - b. Structure
- VIII. Educational implications

Introduction

Students are usually sent home to learn a list of vocabulary words as if learning would occur incidentally. This way of dealing with vocabulary of a language undermines the importance of vocabulary learning. Bar-Lev (2005-2006) asks: “Isn’t it obvious that vocabulary is a far larger, far more important part of a language than its grammar (p. 58)?” How can one express his or her ideas without the use of vocabulary? It is important to note that vocabulary words are not just words to list on paper and to memorize nor to list in a dictionary (Bar-Lev, 2005-2006). In addition, communication and comprehension rely mainly on vocabulary acquisition and not on grammar (Vermeer, 1992, as cited in Khaldieh, 2001). According to Wilkin (1972, as cited in Fang & Xi-ya, 2009) vocabulary is more important than grammar because nothing can be transmitted without vocabulary, however little can be transmitted without grammar. Even though it is an important element in studying a language a lot of students who are learning English are improving at a slow rate due to poor vocabulary acquisition (Fang & Xi-ya, 2009). According to Richards (1976) “the teaching and learning of vocabulary has never aroused the same degree of interest within language teaching as have such issues as grammatical competence, reading or writing which have received considerable attention from scholars and teachers (p. 77).” Furthermore, second language learners mainly focus on grammar and vocabulary acquisition as the two most important sources to construct meaning of what is read (Khaldieh, 2001). Laufer (1997, as cited in Akbari, 2008), states that: “vocabulary learning is at the heart of language learning and language use. In fact, it is what makes the essence of a language (p. 54).”

In a nutshell, “if language structures make up the skeleton of language, then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh” according to Mei-fang (2008, p. 1). Not until recently has vocabulary acquisition received some attention in research mainly as being considered an important part of the language and in changing some of the strategies that were used by teachers and students.

In addition, Anderson and Freebody (1981, as cited in Schreuder & Weltens, 1993) identified three main views related to vocabulary. First, the instrumentalist view regards vocabulary as a prerequisite and contributing factor to comprehension. This view sees vocabulary and comprehension as directly proportional. People who follow this view need to be careful not to fall in the trap of “reductionist view of reading” meaning if a person knows all the vocabulary words needed then this would be enough for him or her to be able to read (p. 115). Second, the aptitude view sees strength in vocabulary as an outcome of the child’s brain in general. Thus a child who has mental aptitude will have a large vocabulary, good reading comprehension, and other good outcomes (Schreuder & Weltens, 1993). Third, the knowledge view views vocabulary as being a sign of good world knowledge or background knowledge. This type of background knowledge helps a lot in reading comprehension because it is not enough for the student to know the vocabulary words to be able to comprehend the text, but it is the addition of background knowledge that helps the student understand what he or she is reading. Anderson and Freebody (1981, as cited in Schreuder & Weltens, 1993) further elaborate that these three views are present at different stages of vocabulary acquisition and skill development and no one should be fixated on any one view. Moreover, Mezynski (1983) addresses a fourth view which is the access view that regards practice as being the main component of

vocabulary acquisition. According to Mezynski (1983) “words that are not practiced enough may be equivalent to unknown words (p. 262).” Students need to be able to identify word meanings with ease in order for these words to be part of their word inventory that is stored in their minds. In such a way they can retrieve it directly whenever it is needed. In reading comprehension these skills are needed to better understand the text.

Lexical Presentation

The concept of vocabulary acquisition is far more complicated than just memorizing the meaning of words. It is the teachers’ job to guide the students to encounter the appropriate words that they should learn (Shewell, 2009). Along the same lines, Fang and Xi-ya (2009) state that “it is the teachers’ responsibility to present words in such a memorable way that a deep impression can be left in the learners’ mind” (p. 9). When dealing with different vocabulary words, teachers need to take four perspectives into consideration which include the following. First is meaning, whereby usually words encompass more than one meaning. In order to determine the correct meaning of the word, students need to understand the context that the word is used in. In other words, as Zimmerman stated in the TESOL Arabia 2009 Conference “students need to be aware of language, not just *using* language” (Shewell, 2009, p. 41). Also, some words have their meanings related to other words. For example, the student needs to understand the meaning of the word *food* to be able to know types of food such as sandwiches, hamburgers, salads, and chicken. Food is the general word and sandwiches, hamburgers, etc. are more specific (Mei-fang, 2008). Factors related to word meanings are understanding words in context and relations between words. Second, how a word is used

can affect its meaning such as the use of metaphors and idioms. The use of collocation can also have an effect. Words need to be selected based on word choice and the situation a person is found in. For example, British people say “tap” while an American refers to it as “faucet” (Mei-fang, 2008, p. 2) and when doctors are talking together about a certain case they encountered; they will use a different register when talking to a patient who is not that knowledgeable in the field of medicine (Mei-fang, 2008, p. 2). Third, words can change form depending if a word is a verb or a noun. Also the addition of prefixes and suffixes can change the word formation. Moreover, students need to know how words are spelled and the correct way of sounding them out. In short, word formation is to know how words are spelled and how their form can be changed depending if the word is a noun, verb, or has a suffix or a prefix added. Finally, grammar of words is an area that students need to know such as countable and uncountable nouns, fixed form nouns, transitive and intransitive verbs, phrasal verbs, and adjectives and adverbs in a sentence (Mei-fang, 2008). When teachers teach students the above four perspectives they will be able to let their students be more aware of the “contextual behavior” of words when they read them in text and they will be able to better understand what the word means and its form (Mei-fang, 2008, p. 3).

Another important aspect that teachers need to take into consideration when teaching vocabulary is what words need to be taught first or spend most time on because not all new words encountered in reading a text should be treated the same. Selecting which words to place more emphasis on is based on the concept of frequency (Harmer, 1991, as cited in Mei-fang, 2008). Deciding which words to teach or to emphasis first depends on how frequently they are used by the speakers of the language. High frequency

words are the words that teachers should teach first to the students. Another aspect for teachers to take into consideration is coverage. Words that cover many things will benefit the students' more than words that are very specific. Two important principles for teachers to take into consideration when teaching vocabulary are frequency and coverage (Mei-fang, 2008). As described above according to Van Els, et al., (1984, as cited in fang & Xi-ya, 2009) "vocabulary teaching and learning is a cycle of semantization and internalization, which is closely linked to and to a large extent dependent on the way in which a word is presented (p. 10)." An important concept to be kept in mind for teachers is that words will not be understood completely from the first encounter the words need to be studied a number of times till they are deeply understood by the students. The depth of processing of words is a very important concept in vocabulary acquisition. Neisser, (1984, as cited in fang & Xi-ya, 2009) described the depth of processing of words in the following way:

repeating words as strings of sounds is low-level processing and badly remembered; working out how words fit in the grammatical structure of the sentence is deeper and leads to a better memory; using the meaning of words together within the whole meaning of the sentence is the deepest level of processing and ensures the best memory (p. 10).

The teacher has a very important role to play in vocabulary acquisition which is to make sure that both efforts, the teacher's and the students', in terms of selecting vocabulary and the way of learning grant the best return for the effort (Schreuder & Weltens, 1993). In addition to the above mentioned teachers' role she or he has four other roles which are to explain the targeted vocabulary words, to define them, to offer

valuable feedback and finally to teach the students to use different strategies in order to help them learn the targeted words (Shewell, 2009). Finally, as students are receiving the right support from their teachers, this will help tremendously in diminishing the language gap (Swanson & Howerton, 2007).

Vocabulary Strategies

Vocabulary research studies focus on different vocabulary learning strategies viewing English as a foreign language or second language acquisition that is dominating the field (Broady, 2008). A quasi-experimental study done by Min (2008) compared two strategies, reading and vocabulary enhancement activities and narrow reading. The sample is composed of 25 male secondary English foreign language students. After the intervention, the students were assessed for vocabulary knowledge and retention of 50 words. Results revealed that the group that had the reading and vocabulary enhancement activities outperformed the other group on word knowledge and retention. Results of this research show that reading and vocabulary exercises on the target words are a very good combination with regard to English foreign language students. In another quasi-experimental study conducted by Morimoto and Loewen (2007) another two strategies for English foreign language students were compared. The two strategies are image-schema-based instruction and translation-based instruction. These two strategies were compared in regard to acquisition of second language polysemous words. The two words that were studied were *over* and *break*. The participants of the study are 58 Japanese high school students learning English. Results of the study revealed that both strategies were effective because both groups outperformed the control group. The image-schema-based instruction group outperformed the other group in learning the word *over*. This was

because the participants were able to rely on their first language as this word is associated with many Japanese equivalent words. It was easier for the students to use the image-schema-based instruction with physical domains. In addition, Webb (2007) conducted a study on Japanese English foreign language students by also comparing two strategies, glossed sentences and word pairs. To measure the students' vocabulary acquisition each word was assessed in 10 ways. Results revealed that both strategies yielded approximately the same results. Webb (2007) encourages the use of explicit tasks for learners to be able to link both form and meaning of words. According to Broady (2008), in educational intervention studies, enhancement of vocabulary acquisition is related to the usage of explicit vocabulary exercises after reading. The question "what type of pedagogic intervention works best for vocabulary retention?" still has no definite answer and it opens up a vast array of research studies to examine (Broady, 2008, p. 260). There are some research studies that stand out with regard to vocabulary retention in English as a foreign language. A within-subjects study was conducted by Folse (2006) to inspect which type of written exercises enables second language students' better vocabulary acquisition and retention. The participants consisted of 154 university students enrolled in an intensive English program. Three written exercises were compared, one fill in the blank exercise, three fill in the blank exercises, and one sentence writing exercise. Results of the study revealed that repeated exercise with three fill in the blank, had the highest word retention. Another study conducted by Barcroft (2007) on 24 English speaking university students studying Spanish as a second language. The students were assessed on 24 vocabulary words paired with their pictures. The words were divided into two groups. Twelve words were presented with a six second lag between the picture and the word.

This was done to allow the students to retrieve the vocabulary words from memory. The other 12 words did not include the time difference. Results of the study revealed higher retention scores on the words that included a time difference. Rott (2007) conducted a study to test the relationship between frequency of words, vocabulary acquisition, and visual enhancement. The participants were 38 native English speakers studying German. Each participant had to read a text under the following three treatments conditions: “first target words were glossed four times in the text; second, target words were first glossed then retrieved in the first language and bolded twice; and third, target words were first glossed and then bolded three times (Barcroft, 2007, p. 171). The participants were assessed in three ways, pretest, posttest, and a text comprehension. Results showed that bolded words (visual enhancements) did not increase vocabulary acquisition. Vocabulary acquisition increased through glossing target words frequently and allowing the participants to retrieve the words in their first language. Moreover, two recent studies were conducted to investigate the use of class-based interaction strategies on vocabulary retention. The first study was done by De la Fuente (2006) that compared three types of lessons: presentation-practice-production (PPP) lesson, a task-based-language-teaching (TBLT) lesson, and a TBLT lesson with an “explicit teacher generated focus on forms component (p. 270). The sample of the study is made up of 30 English speakers whose second language is Spanish. The participants were from three different elementary Spanish sections of a Spanish class. The results of the study showed that there was no significant difference in the immediate retrieval of the target words using the three lessons. The TBLT with the focus on forms component outperformed the other lessons in word retention. According to De la Fuente (2006), the advantage of the TBLT with focus

on forms lesson may be due to “more opportunities to negotiation of meaning and output production and allow for on-line retrieval of target words (p. 287).” The second study was conducted by Kim (2008) to determine which type of learning is beneficial to second language learners: collaborative learning or individual learning. The sample of the study consisted of 32 Korean university students. The participants were randomly divided into two groups. A collaborative group that included 16 participants and an individual group that included 16 participants. Results showed that participants in the collaborative group outperformed the other participants on vocabulary tests.

“Depth of processing” according to Broady (2008, p. 261) “is a theoretical construct frequently used to account for the success of pedagogic interventions.” The depth of processing reveals that the more the learner is cognitively engaged with a new vocabulary word, the more the chances that this word would be retained. Additionally, the depth of processing can be used to explain the keyword method or strategy, which is correlating a second language vocabulary word with a first language word that is similar in either sound or spelling. This strategy is made up of four phases. In the first phase, the foreign word or second language word to be studied is selected. Then a word in the student’s first language is selected that sounds similar to the foreign word. In the third phase a mental image is selected that fits both words and finally the student attaches the meaning of the new word to the image he or she came up with (Shewell, 2009). In addition to the methods and strategies described above, there has been a lot of emphasis on inferencing strategies and mnemonics, such as keyword method. In summary, vocabulary researcher Peter Yongqi Gu (2003) describes vocabulary strategies in the following way:

Person, task, context and strategy are interrelated and work together to form the chemistry of learning. An analysis of learning strategies will never be complete without knowing the person-task-content configuration of the particular learning situation. Some strategies are more person-dependent, some are more task-dependent, and others are more context-dependent (p. 3).

A strategy that is recommended to be used with preschool children is storybook reading. When children listen to stories read out loud to them, at minimum twice their vocabulary acquisition becomes enhanced (Robbins & Ehri, 1994). Furthermore, research studies have shown that multiple readings of stories out loud are an important way to enhance vocabulary acquisition of children. The results of three pilot experiments, with second language children, revealed that when a story was read out loud three times in a week with no explanation of the target words, 19% of the target words were learned. When it was read out loud one time with explanation of target words, 20% of the target words were learned. Furthermore, reading the story three times accompanied by brief explanations of target words, gains were 33%. These finds reveal that stories read aloud several times to children are beneficial, however the addition of target words explanation while reading increases vocabulary acquisition significantly (Elley, 1989). Initial vocabulary ability of the child is an important indicator to further gains. Children with higher vocabulary knowledge make more gains than children that initially possessed lower vocabulary knowledge (Penno, Wilkinson, & Moore, 2002). Primary language story book reading is helpful for preschool children because it promotes cognitive development mainly related to concepts and language meanings. Also, when children are read to in their primary language, they may be able to understand the concept behind the

story and this will help them in understanding more vocabulary words. This will in turn also help in second language vocabulary learning. In addition to that, preschool children first language vocabulary size predicts their kindergarten and successive reading skills (Scarborough, 2001, as cited in Roberts, 2008). It is important for teachers or parents to interact with children when reading aloud storybooks. Teachers need to interact with the children about the meaning of the words in the story. This can be done by providing some explanations of the target vocabulary words, asking a few simple questions, pointing to pictures, and naming pictures (Senechal, Thomas, & Monker, 1995). A study was conducted to test the effect of alternating between the children's primary language and English on vocabulary acquisition. First, caregivers and the children had to alternate between reading in their first language and then in English. Second, children vocabulary learning was compared when the children read a story at home with their caregivers in English and then read the same books in the classroom in English. Also when reading a storybook at home in the child's first language and then reading the same book in the classroom in English. The sample was made up of 44 preschool children. The primary languages of the children were Hmong (48%), Spanish (32%) and English (20%). The children were divided between morning and afternoon classes and they were pre and posttested (Roberts, 2008). The results of the study indicate that children who read storybooks at home in their primary language outperformed children who read English books at home on English vocabulary acquisition. This study did not have a control group; however, comparing the study with other studies showed that vocabulary learning due to storybook reading was more than the general vocabulary growth. This finding indicated that storybook reading is a good strategy to use to enhance vocabulary

acquisition. The children were able to switch between the two languages easily and this did not negatively affect second language vocabulary acquisition (Roberts, 2008).

As described above, there are different strategies and techniques that can be used to teach vocabulary acquisition to students. Adding to the list above Weatherford (1990, as cited in Akbari, 2008) suggests the following techniques: “rote rehearsal, using visual aids, rote-playing, art activities, root-word approach, learning using music, physical activities, analogies, computer-assisted instruction, and synonyms” (p. 54). Rivers (1981, as cited in Akbari, 2008) states that “vocabulary cannot be taught. It can be presented, explained, included in all kinds of activities, but it must be learned by the individual (p. 56).” A study was done in search of the most effective strategy out of the three strategies which are contextualization, using pictures and the traditional strategies such as definitions and synonyms. The participants of the study were 96 elementary male students studying English as a foreign language. The participants were divided into three groups two experimental and one control each made up of 32 students. The control group used the traditional methods and the two experimental groups used either contextualization or pictures. Three instruments were used in the study a language proficiency test, a pretest and a posttest. The results indicated that the experimental group that used the picture technique outperformed all the other groups. Pictures play an important role in teaching vocabulary words to elementary students (Akbari, 2008). In summary Tseng, Dornyei, and Schmitt (2006) state that

It is not what learners’ do that makes them strategic learners but rather the fact that they put creative effort into trying to improve their own learning. This is an important shift from focusing on the product – the actual techniques employed –

to the self-regulatory process itself and the specific learner capacity underlying it (p. 81).

Furthermore, being able to learn independently or use self-learning strategies is an asset that students develop in school as they encounter an increased amount of vocabulary words to learn. Examples of such strategies include guessing in context, using this strategy students need to be able to guess the meaning of a new word from its context. By relying on some clues that might be present in context such as definitions, synonyms, antonyms, and sometimes from the context as a whole identifying the meaning of the word will be easier. The use of a glossary, usually found at the end of textbooks, may also be a great help to the students in addition to that, using the dictionary to look up the meaning of new words might be helpful but it should not be considered a strategy on its own to learn new words but rather as a supplement to something else (Meifang, 2008).

Also adding to the list of strategies mentioned earlier semantic mapping can be a useful strategy to use with the students (fang & Xi-ya, 2009). This strategy enables students to work together helping each other to understand the meaning of new words. Nation in the TESOL Arabia 2009 Conference tackled the topic of direct teaching with regard to second language acquisition and mainly focusing on the use of flashcards. The flashcard strategy includes seven steps and helps the students in learning the targeted vocabulary words more efficiently only by knowing what the word means or its translation (Shewell, 2009).

Factors Affecting Vocabulary

There are many factors that may hinder or enhance vocabulary acquisition in English. First, relying on the use of the dictionary as a way to know the meaning of the words hinders vocabulary acquisition. According to Fang and Xi-ya (2009), the dictionary decreases the importance of vocabulary learning by showing students that vocabulary learning is a list of words where each word may have one or more meanings to be memorized. As mentioned above words are related to each other and they are not merely listed on paper to be memorized (Fang and Xi-ya, 2009). The dictionary needs to be used as a supplement to something else and not relied on alone to help in vocabulary acquisition. When teaching students a second language vocabulary, word for word translation hinders vocabulary acquisition. There is no equivalent for each and every word in another language. As Fang and Xi-ya (2009) stated “words are not coins people exchange from one language to another according to a fixed rate (p. 10).” When students are taught the vocabulary of another language they are not just being taught words and definitions on the contrary they are being taught relationships between both languages. Furthermore, trying to cover the entire word list, usually present in textbooks, related to a new lesson before starting the lesson to be familiar with its vocabulary is not a good idea (Fang and Xi-ya, 2009). This way of teaching has three main disadvantages. First, these words are being taught in isolation students are deprived the chance of understanding the words in context to be able to make connections between the words and others in order to understand them more fully. Second, the teacher will be putting the same amount of emphasis on all the words and in return the students will place the same amount of time on each of these words and result in loss of interest in the subject due to pure

memorization. There may be words in this list that do not need a lot of emphasis and students will view themselves as passive learners memorizing words. Finally, when teachers “spoon-feed” students new words, they are not giving them the chance to relate the new words to already known words or to rehearse old words to prevent forgetting the information (Fang and Xi-ya, 2009, p. 10).

On the other hand, “teaching in a meaningful way” (Fang and Xi-ya, 2009, p. 11) is considered as a way to enhance vocabulary acquisition. According to Ausubel (1968, as cited in Fang and Xi-ya, 2009) meaningful learning is when students can relate new information to already stored information cognitively. Ausubel makes the distinction clear between rote learning, as mentioned above, and meaningful learning where the first is related to retention only and the other is related to long-term memory. The purpose of meaningful learning is described by William James (1980, as cited in Fang and Xi-ya, 2009) as

In mental terms, the more other facts a fact is associated with in the mind, the better the possession of it our memory retains...The ‘secret of good memory’ is thus the secret of forming diverse and multiple associations with every fact we came to retain (p. 11).

The use of schema-based theory enhances vocabulary acquisition for students. The schema-based theory views learning as forming new schemata. The new schema is formed in the following way. Students make up a new schema by copying an old schema they had stored and modifying it. This type of learning is called learning by analogy (Fang and Xi-ya, 2009). For example, when the teacher is explaining the word “bush” to the students most of the students may not be able to picture it directly in their heads.

Students already know what is a “tree”, so the teacher can start with the “tree” schema they have stored in their minds and then find out the differences between a “tree” and a “bush” for them to be able to modify the “tree” to result in there new schema (Fang and Xi-ya, 2009, p. 11). This theory is also accompanied with the semantic mapping activity described in the previous section. Other factors that enhance vocabulary acquisition for the students are allowing the students to interact with words, make use of mental processing, and do not teach similar words together (Mei-fang, 2008). Students need to actively interact with words in order to understand them and store them in memory because mere repetition will not solve the problem. What students need to do is manipulate the words such as change them to their opposites or changing a noun to an adjective in such a way the words will be stuck in the students minds (Harmer, 1991, as cited in Mei-fang, 2008). Mental processing is related to “depth of processing hypothesis” which states that “mental activities which require more elaborate thought, manipulation, or processing of a new word will help in the learning of that word (Craik & Tulving, 1975, as cited in Mei-fang, 2008, p. 4).” In other words, this hypothesis addresses the use of deep vocabulary processing such as making use of schemata learning, as described above, or grouping similar words together to be learned (Schmitt, 1995, as cited in Mei-fang, 2008). When teaching similar words together students will be confused. This way of teaching results in the “principle of interference” (Mei-fang, 2008, p. 4). To avoid such interference between the words it is better to teach high frequency words first and then when the students have mastered these words introduce similar words in such a way confusion will not happen. For example, Higa (1963, as cited in Mei-fang, 2008) found out that students’ who had to learn similar words at the same time,

like antonyms, encountered some difficulty in comparison to learning words that were not similar.

In addition to what is mentioned above, a study was conducted by Elley (1989) with seven and eight year old participants. This study showed an enhanced vocabulary acquisition when listening to stories regardless if the stories included or did not include teacher explanations of the target words. But one of the features that best increased vocabulary acquisition and retention is the use of pictures in addition to listening to stories. In addition, Elley (1989) believes that the frequency of occurrence of a word in a story is an important indicator of vocabulary acquisition. Some reading research studies propose that students need at least between six and 16 exposures for them to be able to learn the words fluently and accurately (Vidal, 2003). However, the “levels-of-processing-view of memory” (Craik and Lockhart, 1972, as cited in Vidal, 2003, p. 60) states that oral repetition does not lead to words being stored in long term memory and other related research shows evidence that what leads to words being stored in long term memory is the deep processing of the vocabulary words (Ellis and Beaton 1993a, as cited in Vidal, 2003). An experiment done by Vidal (2003) examines that effect of academic lectures (university lectures) in relation to vocabulary acquisition among English foreign language first year university participants ($n = 122$). This study also examined if the learned words were stored in long term memory or not. The secondary analysis of the experiment tested the relationship between vocabulary acquisition and the following factors: “frequency of occurrence (number of times the word is said in the lecture), type of word (technical, academic, or low frequency word)” (Vidal, 2003, p. 61) this factor is based on the role of four word related features based on Nation’s (1990:19, as cited in

Vidal, 2003) classification which are “high-frequency, academic, technical, and low-frequency” (p. 60). After implementing the study only three out of the four word related features were used which are “technical, academic, and low-frequency words” (Vidal, 2003, p. 62). The rest of the factors are “type of word elaboration that accompanies the word (explicit elaboration, implicit elaboration, no elaboration at all) and predictability from word form and parts (unpredictable, deceptively transparent, morphologically predictable, similar to Spanish- L1)” (Vidal, 2003, p. 62). The study included three lectures that included 36 target vocabulary words. Each lecture contained 12 words and each word was classified into one of the three word related features described above.

Results of the experiment revealed an enhancement in vocabulary acquisition of university students that listened to the academic lectures. Students who were more proficient in English learned more vocabulary words than the other students and those students lost more of the vocabulary words than their weaker classmates. Weaker students’ revealed a small increase in vocabulary acquisition in relation to the other group but they were able to retain more words than the other group. In addition to that, retention of vocabulary words in memory was for at least four weeks.

“The amount of target language input that can be successfully processed seems to increase as proficiency in the language increases” (Call 1985, p. 769) this fact explains the results of the study. In other words the results indicated that students’ vocabulary acquisition was influenced by the degree of understanding of the lecture; the higher the comprehension levels of the lecture, the larger the vocabulary gain of the students.

The results of the secondary analysis of the experiment revealed that the factor predictability from word form and parts was strongly related to vocabulary acquisition.

The results of this secondary analysis revealed that the use of cognates was extremely helpful when learning academic material because the vocabulary word can be easily acquired by the students and in turn this adds to the students' knowledge of words. Cognates are helpful because it allows the student to add new information to already existing information stored in memory and this makes retrieval easier and forgetting harder. Where as when dealing with non-cognates, students can not anymore relate to information stored in their memories, but on the contrary they need to build new entries in their memory. This shows that the use of non-cognates puts more demand on memory than the use of cognates (de Groot & Keijzer, 2000). On the other hand, false cognates were found to hinder the students' vocabulary acquisition. This happens when students do not recognize that two words even though they may seem alike, have different meanings depending if the first language or the second language was used. The second factor that affected vocabulary acquisition is the type of word. The students performed best on technical words than the rest of the words. The reason behind this is that as Nation (1990: 141, as cited in Vidal, 2003) stated "learning technical words is closely connected with learning the subject" (p. 82). The third factor that showed an enhancement in vocabulary acquisition is type of word elaboration. The words that were presented with explicit elaborations were the ones that had better vocabulary acquisition. Finally, frequency of word occurrence factor did not promote vocabulary acquisition. According to Nation (2001: 81, as cited in Vidal, 2003) "the correlations between repetitions and learning generally are only moderate" (p. 83), this is why this factor did not show a positive relationship. As mentioned previously repetition alone is not enough

what is needed is deep processing of the information for vocabulary acquisition to take place.

Age is one variable that is deeply researched in second language acquisition. There is a wide belief with respect to age which is that “the earlier one starts learning a language, the better” (Miralpeix, 2007, p. 62). This view has been challenged by recent research indicating that the known belief “the younger the better” is not always the case when learning only occurs at school and input is minimal (Garcia Mayo & Garcia Lecumberri, 2003; Griffin, 1993; Munoz, 2006, as cited in Miralpeix, 2007, p. 62). Miralpeix (2007) conducted a study to investigate the effects of the following: age of onset, cognitive maturity, and amount of exposure on the productive vocabulary acquisition of students studying English as a foreign language. The participants are a total of 93 bilingual high-schools students divided among three groups. The students had to take part in three oral tasks and one written task. The results of the study demonstrate that age depends on implicit learning events, where children are better than adults, but adolescents benefit more from explicit instruction which is usually found at school. This may explain why the belief the younger the better is recently challenged. This does not mean that vocabulary learning only happens explicitly, according to Ellis (1994, as cited in Miralpeix, 2007) implicit vocabulary learning is related to learning of forms and explicit vocabulary learning is related to learning of meaning. Another finding from the study is that late starters (adolescents) have a faster rate of acquisition than early starters (children) which means they are better off when it comes to productive vocabulary knowledge. This study revealed that in the long run, early starters of vocabulary learning do not benefit in school in productive vocabulary. The amount of exposure is an

important concept to mention. First, words are not usually learned from a single exposure there needs to be several exposures to words for learning to take place. Second, early starters, who learn vocabulary, put their vocabulary knowledge at risk in relation to other linguistic aspects for example, grammar (Schmitt, 2000, as cited in Miralpeix, 2007). As for late starters, they start learning the language when they are cognitively mature as a result they become more proficient faster because the risk of losing the information depends on the stage of learning which puts late starters at an advantage. As a nutshell, the amount of exposure to vocabulary will affect vocabulary acquisition and not the age of onset.

The language used at home is assumed to have an impact on children's learning outcomes. Duursma et al., (2007) studied factors related to bilingual students' Spanish and English vocabulary. The participants were 96 grade five students from four schools. The students are bilingual, Latino English learners. Results showed that for students to be skilled in Spanish they needed to encounter the use of Spanish in school and at home. Whereas, proficiency in English did not require parental support, instruction at school was enough. Some studies showed that when students' first language was used at home this resulted in higher literacy outcomes in school. Other studies related to the effect of first language usage and students' literacy outcomes in their second language showed a negative association between the two. There seems to be a an uncertain relationship between the use of the home language and student's literacy outcomes in relation to the second language where some studies found a negative association and others found no relationship at all. A study was conducted by Hammer et al., (2009) to examine the effect of the mothers' language usage during Head Start and kindergarten and its effect on

children's Spanish and English receptive vocabulary and English emergent literacy development. The participants consisted of 72 children with their mothers. Results revealed that children's English vocabulary and literacy abilities increased during their stay in Head Start and kindergarten but maternal language was not the reason behind this increase. These results are consistent with many research studies that found that the use of second language at home did not have an effect on literacy outcomes. On the other hand, adjustments in maternal language resulted in a negative correlation with respect to Spanish vocabulary acquisition. Mothers of children who increased the use of English resulted in their children suffering from slower rates of vocabulary acquisition than children who had their mothers mainly speaking more Spanish. Furthermore, the usage of Spanish at home did not affect children's English vocabulary acquisition or their literacy skills and it enriched the children's Spanish vocabulary. Thus, according to Cummins's (1979) "interdependence hypotheses, there is an interaction between the language of instruction and the type of competence the child has developed in his first language prior to school" (p.233).

Last, Tonzar, Lotto, & Job (2009) conducted a study to examine the effects of two learning methods which are picture learning or word mediated learning and two word status which are cognates and non-cognates on vocabulary acquisition of English and German, two foreign languages. A total of 123 participants took part in this study. Out of the 123 participants 65 were females in grade four and 106 were males in grade eight. All the participants were native Italian speakers. The results of the study revealed that the picture learning method enhanced vocabulary acquisition for the entire sample. Also results showed that cognates were easier than non-cognates for students in both grades.

Tonzar et al., (2009) explained that the picture learning method enhanced vocabulary acquisition because it permits a direct connection between the second language word and its concept. Two important factors to take into consideration when dealing with this method are the age of the student and the size of his or her first language vocabulary. In addition to that, the use of cognate words helped in vocabulary acquisition in both grade levels. This is because cognates in both languages have some degree of form overlap according to Hall (2002). This overlap may facilitate to students the meaning of words in such a way students feel more familiar with the target word unlike non-cognates (Hall, 2002). The advantage of the picture method over the other method used in this study shows that the link with the following factors: “structural description of an object, its visual representation, and its name” is more effective than the association between first language and second language words (Tonzar et al., 2009, p. 641). This in turn will enhance the students’ vocabulary acquisition.

In summary of what was mentioned above the following factors which are relying on the use of the dictionary, word for word translation, covering the entire word list, oral repetition of words, noncognate words, and adjustments in maternal language hinder vocabulary acquisition of the students. On the other hand, teaching in a meaningful way, schema based theory, interacting with words, making use of mental processing, not teaching similar words together, using visual aids, listening to academic lectures, using cognate words, learning technical words, having words presented with explicit elaboration, having several exposures to words, and using the picture learning method enhance vocabulary acquisition of the students.

Order of Varieties

There is a lot of controversy relating to the order in which the two varieties of Arabic need to be studied. In other words, should schools first emphasize the colloquial Arabic and then introduce the standard variety or should it be the other way around? Or should schools only emphasize standard Arabic and disregard colloquial Arabic? A third option might be to emphasize one variety of the language without discouraging the use of the other variety (Brosh & Olshtain, 1995). Differences between the two varieties of the language are also related to the different components of language which are vocabulary, phonology, syntax, and grammar. Speakers of Arabic encounter a tough time when switching between the two dialects of Arabic whereby they need to be able to switch between the different components of language such as vocabulary and grammar with ease (Brosh & Olshtain, 1995). According to Ferguson (1971, as cited in Brosh & Olshtain, 1995) the issue of diglossia cannot be resolved except by teaching or learning only one variety of the language. This introduces the dilemma of which variety to learn or teach first the colloquial or the standard as expressed by some questions above. To make the situation even more complicated, a new version of Arabic is introduced known as Educated Spoken Arabic or ESA (Ryding, 1991).

In Israel some schools teach colloquial or spoken Arabic to students in their elementary grades which are grades four, five and six and standard Arabic is taught from grade seven onwards. This shift from colloquial to standard Arabic forces the students to adjust their knowledge and replace some grammatical structures in addition to an abundant number of vocabulary words. The rationale behind teaching the students

colloquial Arabic first is that in this way the students will have an advantage in acquiring the standard language when they get older (Brosh & Olshtain, 1995).

Brosh and Olshtain (1995) conducted a study to examine the effects of studying colloquial Arabic first and then shifting to standard Arabic. The study included two main research questions which are the following. First, to determine if there exists any differences in achievement of standard Arabic with respect to "vocabulary, grammar, reading comprehension, listening comprehension, pronunciation, and orthography" based on two achievement tests, mid year and end of year, between 7th grade students who previously studied colloquial Arabic in elementary grades and those with no previous instruction in Arabic (p. 251). Second, to find out if there are any gain scores in standard Arabic in relation to the six curriculum areas mentioned above between grade seven students who previously studied colloquial Arabic and those who did not. The participants of the study were grade seven students studying standard Arabic in Jewish-Israeli junior high schools, the students were randomly chosen from five schools in Tel Aviv. The total number of participants was 469 students, of which 286 studied colloquial Arabic in elementary school and they are the experimental group and 183 students did not study colloquial Arabic before and they are the control group. Both groups started to study standard Arabic at the beginning of grade seven. Two batteries of tests were used to test the students' achievement in literary Arabic at the middle and end of year. Each battery consisted of six subtests that are mentioned in the research question above. The two batteries administered at the middle and end of the year were identical in format but not in content. Each subtest was made up of 12 to 15 items. For example, in the vocabulary test the student had to translate words from Hebrew to Arabic and also from

Arabic to Hebrew, to differentiate between masculine and feminine nouns, singular and plural, synonyms and antonyms and to infer the meaning of words in context (Brosh & Olshtain, 1995). The results of the study revealed that teaching students colloquial Arabic before teaching them standard Arabic put them at an advantage mainly in the area of listening because they were able to rely on their previous experience they had with colloquial Arabic. On the other hand, the students were at a disadvantage in the areas of grammar and vocabulary because of the great differences between the two varieties of the Arabic language. This situation usually forces students to purposefully forget the rules of the colloquial variety to be able to study the standard variety. Moreover, students need to erase some colloquial words from their memory and replace these words with standard words. Due to the difficulty that students need to handle sometimes their teachers instruct them to just forget what they learned in colloquial Arabic because now they are learning a new language! One student expresses his frustration in the following way "in Arabic classes I am under stress not to say words I have learned in spoken Arabic. I ask myself why have they taught me things I should forget?! (Brosh & Olshtain, 1995, p. 257)" This study showed that the order of which the Arabic varieties are studied does have an effect on vocabulary acquisition. Some suggestions are the following. First, combining the two varieties of Arabic together may be more useful (Albatal, 1992, as cited in Brosh & Olshtain, 1995). Second, the way the teacher presents the Arabic language to the students needs to be appealing. Third, the knowledge of spoken Arabic can be used as a facilitator into standard Arabic. Fourth, teaching ESA (Ryding, 1991) may facilitate this dilemma because it is in the middle between colloquial Arabic and standard Arabic. It is believed

to reduce the diglossic distance between the two varieties of the language (Brosh & Olshtain, 1995).

Moreover, reading is directly related to vocabulary acquisition which makes things more difficult. According to Rosenhouse and Shehadi (1986, as cited in Feitelson, Goldstein, Iraqi & Share, 1993), parents, educators, and linguists blame the high reading difficulty rate in Arab schools on diglossia. In turn this may affect the vocabulary acquisition of students. The attitude of parents also affects preschool children's encounter with standard Arabic. A study that consisted of 290 families of Arab kindergartners in Israel examined the two issues which are "book-buying habits and book use" (Iraqi, 1990, as cited in Feitelson, Goldstein, Iraqi & Share, 1993, p. 72). Results revealed that only five of the families which are 1.8% of the sample actually read to their children from the books. While 58.2% of the sample orally recited stories to their children and the remaining 40% used books to read a story to their children but they did not read directly from the books. They actually told the child the story in colloquial Arabic and they just used the book to look at the pictures. Parents gave two reasons why they performed in such a way. First, children do not understand standard Arabic. Second, children do not like being read to in standard Arabic. As a nutshell, an absence of exposure to standard Arabic in kindergarten deprives the children from the knowledge and skills that are needed to help them later on (Feitelson, Goldstein, Iraqi & Share, 1993).

Moreover, some studies using quasi-experimental designs conducted at the University of Haifa wanted to investigate the relationship between reading to children and children's standard language knowledge. Kindergarten and first grade Hebrew-speaking students considered as the experimental group surpassed their friends in the

control group. The experimental group listened to stories that were read to them in standard Arabic and as a result they were able to outperform the control group in comprehension and also by using a richer vocabulary when explaining a picture story. This study showed that when children become familiarized with standard Arabic within a story context, it directly extended to their active use of the language (Feitelson, Goldstein, Iraqi & Share, 1993).

Review of other studies also showed that the order of the varieties in which they are taught can have an important impact on vocabulary which was shown by a study done on twelve randomly selected kindergarten classes in a middle-sized Arab town in Israel using a randomized pretest posttest design. The experimental group consisted of teachers in the kindergarten classes that read standard Arabic stories to the students through out six month period from January to June everyday. While the teachers in the control group used a language development program by the ministry of education over the same time period. The aim was not to let the children substitute one variety of the language for the other but only to let the children understand an additional variety which is standard Arabic. Results showed that reading literary Arabic texts to kindergarten children familiarized them with the language and allowed them to have a more active use of the language which made their speech more grammatically correct and their use of words stronger. This study revealed the fact that it is possible to start familiarizing children with standard Arabic before they enter school (Feitelson, Goldstein, Iraqi & Share, 1993).

Some researchers such as Ayari (1996) argue that diglossia has negatively impacted Arab students in two ways. First, in their educational success and second, in their literacy acquisition. Abu Rabia (2000) conducted a study that involved testing the

order of the varieties of Arabic with preschool and kindergarten children in relation to reading acquisition. Moreover, the Matthew effect facilitates additional knowledge by having a good educational base that a student can depend on (Stanovich, 1986).

According to Stanovich (1986) "A person with more expertise has a larger knowledge base, and the large knowledge base allows that person to acquire even greater expertise at a faster rate (p. 381)." Early reading leads to the Matthew effect (Abu Rabia, 2000). The study that Abu Rabia (2000) conducted involved a two year exposure of standard Arabic during preschool and kindergarten to reading comprehension of standard Arabic in grades one and two considered as the experimental group. The control group was exposed to colloquial Arabic in preschool and kindergarten years. The sample was made up of 282 first and second grade students from three schools in Israel. The experiment group consisted of 69 first grade and 75 second grade students while the control group was made up of 66 first grade and 72 second grade students. Two Arabic stories were chosen for each grade level and ten multiple choice questions were asked for each story. Results showed that children that were exposed to standard Arabic during preschool and kindergarten improved their reading ability and reading comprehension in grades one and two. These results are in parallel with Ayari's (1996) results that students need to be exposed to standard Arabic starting from preschool as a way to familiarize the children with the language of instruction. Abu Rabia (2000) suggested two ideas from the above results. First, policy makers may need to rethink the idea of including standard Arabic in preschool education as part of the curriculum. This may transform the old beliefs that children can not understand standard Arabic. Second, teachers need to use standard

Arabic when teaching which will improve the students reading skills and make the language more meaningful and familiar to them.

Challenges of Arabic

Limited data exists on the challenges of the Arabic language. The Arabic language belongs to the Semitic family of languages. Because of its family it does not share cognates with the English language on the contrary it includes noncognate words which makes vocabulary learning in Arabic a major challenge (Ryding & Bin Said, n.d.). Reading and writing Arabic occurs from right to left and it is made up of connected letters just as if someone is writing cursive. Further, short vowels are not evident but they need to be pronounced when reading and long vowels are written in words. Arabic consists of phonemes that other languages such as English do not possess it. These include “pharyngeals, uvulars, and velarized consonants” (Ryding & Bin Said, n.d., ¶ 3). Also Arabic includes a complex morphological system. In this regard, diglossia is a challenge that educational institutions and teachers need to take into consideration. According to Ryding & Bin Said (n.d.) the distance between colloquial Arabic and standard Arabic mainly affects the vocabulary of the language more than it affects grammar. Moreover, for a person to achieve proficiency in the Arabic language he or she needs to master at least three varieties of Arabic which are standard Arabic, colloquial Arabic, and Educated Spoken Arabic (Brosh & Olshtain, 1995).

Educated Spoken Arabic

Educated Spoken Arabic or ESA is a different variety of the Arabic language. It can be considered as a middle variety of Arabic that is used by educated speakers. This variety of Arabic is labeled differently by many researchers such as “urban cultivated

Arabic,” “middle Arabic,” “pan-Arabic,” “Inter-regional standard,” “supra-dialectal L”, “inter-Arabic”, and “the elevated colloquial” (Ryding, 1991, p. 213). Educated Spoken Arabic is less complicated than standard Arabic and it uses some of the “lexicon, morphological, and syntactic elements” of colloquial Arabic (Alosh, 1991, as cited in Brosh & Olshtain, 1995, p. 249). Including a mix of both varieties, ESA is now more convenient to use and can also be used in less formal situations than standard Arabic. The issue that gives ESA an advantage is that it is continually nourished by the colloquial variety. Arab linguists further defined this intermediate variety as “a form of standard Arabic that does not use case endings, follows the colloquial pronunciation and freely introduces colloquial words, while retaining the general structure of the standard language (Versteegh, 2001, p. 191).” Educated Spoken Arabic or Formal Spoken Arabic may become an educational dialect that can be taught in classrooms to the students and may lessen the gap between the standard and the colloquial varieties of the language (Brosh & Olshtain, 1995). It is important to note that Educated Spoken Arabic does not replace standard Arabic (Ryding, 1991). According to Ryding (1991, p. 214) “Formal Standard Arabic is the most understood L variety and even considered prestigious in countries where it is not spoken.”

The structure of Formal Standard Arabic is considered to be solid at the heart and somehow fuzzy at the surroundings. This variety of Arabic differs from the other two varieties in its lexicon, phonology, morphology, and syntax (Ryding, 1991). For example, dissecting the lexicon of FSA shows a good sign to its core features. In relation to high frequency words such as “to go” and “to see” and as other words like “not” or “which”, Formal Standard Arabic uses the colloquial variety.

For example, shaaf (to see); jaab (to bring); raaH (to go); ijaa (to come); mish (to negate nouns, pronouns, adjectives, and participles); maa (negative for both tenses of the verb as well as for fiih and 9ind); raH (future maker); illii (relative pronoun); fiih (there is, there are); 9ind (to have); ma9 (to have with); laazim (it is necessary that); mumkin (it is possible that; maybe); bukra (tomorrow); kamaan (also); miin (who); lissa (still; not yet); leesh/leeh (why); ween/feen (where); ba9deen (afterward); heek (thus); mish heek? (right?; tag question) (Ryding, 1991, p. 215).

Added to these high frequency words, some routine expressions are also used from the colloquial variety of the language for example, “basiita”, means “don’t worry”; “mish battaal”, means “not bad (Ryding, 1991, p. 215).” Other than what is listed above, the vocabulary of FSA is mainly that of standard Arabic (Ryding, 1991).

Educational Implications

There needs to be more emphasis on vocabulary learning and teaching or vocabulary building in Arabic. The role of vocabulary is very important as it is a basis for reading and reading comprehension. There needs to be vocabulary strategies based on context that we can teach our students to use in order to expand their vocabulary knowledge. These strategies need to be based on “acquisition of word meaning from context” and not “comprehension of word meaning from context (Lawson & Hogben, 1996, p. 105).” The latter is when the student produces a word to replace the target word in order to get a gist of what he or she is reading. On the other hand, the former is when the student on purpose uses context clues and other ways to uncover the meaning of the target word (Lawson & Hogben, 1996). Moreover, there should be interesting stories that

children can read and that are colorful, filled with illustrations and current topics. Teacher education is very important to take into account. Arabic teachers need to be trained in applied linguistics and collaborative educational approaches to be able to teach Arabic (Maamouri, 1998). Reading at home is necessary with preschool and kindergarten children. Furthermore, for the Arab children to increase their cognitive ability, they need to receive the appropriate language stimulation they need. Parents need to read to their children everyday to help their children cognitively. Due to high illiteracy rates among parents reading to children daily can be an obstacle (Maamouri, 1998). Children need to start getting exposed to standard Arabic before entering school in order to help them succeed in school and not consider standard Arabic as a new language. This is done by reading standard Arabic books to the children and not just let them look at pictures and recite the story in colloquial Arabic. Studies have shown that children who are exposed to standard Arabic at an early age allow them to use richer vocabulary.

In a nutshell, vocabulary acquisition is not just memorizing a list of words. On the contrary, it is based on deep understanding and retention. A big responsibility rests on the teacher and the way he or she chooses and presents the words to the students. It is important that the students' be able to reach a stage where they can learn independently by using different vocabulary strategies. They should not focus on the product, the strategy, but on the process, the way the words are learned. Added to that, there are different factors that may enhance or hinder vocabulary acquisition that need to be taken into consideration when teaching the students different vocabulary words.

The Arabic language is a language that is filled with challenges. A main challenge is diglossia and other challenges include trying to master three varieties of the language

which are standard, colloquial, and educated spoken Arabic to be proficient in the language in addition to other challenges discussed above. Studies revealed that familiarizing students with standard Arabic as early as kindergarten is very beneficial. In such a way they will encompass a richer vocabulary and they will not perceive this variety as a new language. Also the use of standard Arabic starting from kindergarten may lessen the affect of diglossia.

This paper will further investigate the relationship of diglossia and vocabulary acquisition through implementing several techniques on KG II and elementary students in a private school in kfarshima. The methodology section that follows will produce a detailed view of the present study.

Chapter Three

Methodology

Research Design

Several types of designs were used in conducting the study. The first type of design is the correlational research design which was chosen due to the following reasons. First, the researcher described relationships that naturally existed and there was no alteration on the part of the researcher (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2008). In other words the researcher tested the effect of a naturally existing phenomenon which is the independent variable, diglossia, on how it affects the dependent variable, vocabulary acquisition (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). Second, there is a presumed correlation between the two variables stated above but the cause and effect relationship is not clear among these two variables (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2008). Third, correlational research is known for its value in determining “measures of association” (Cohen, et al., 2007, p. 266). The second type of design is the survey research design whereby the researcher performed three personal interviews with the Arabic teachers who teach at the preschool and elementary grades, which are KG II, grades I, and II. This research design has many advantages. For example, it can help clarify any confusions experienced by the interviewee, has higher response rates (Cohen et al., 2007), and according to Dooley (2001: 122, as cited in Cohen et al., 2007) the presence of the interviewer can encourage trust and cooperation from the interviewee. During the interview, the researcher did not ask the teachers about each and every student in their classes but about the use of both varieties of the Arabic language and how often they are used in class by all the students. Moreover, a questionnaire was administered to the parents to obtain information on the usage of both

varieties of the Arabic language. Also the use of questionnaires has many advantages such as allowing to assemble a large amount of data on a “one-shot basis”, and to collect “standardized information”, and to find out any correlations between variables according to Morrison (1993: 38-40, as cited in Cohen et al., 2007, p. 206).

Sampling Procedure

Hundred students participated in this study selected from a private school in Kfarshima. Hundred students were chosen because a minimum sample size that is accepted to be used in most correlational studies is not less than 30 (Cohen et al., 2007) and guidelines related to the minimum sample size recommend not less than 50 to be used in correlational studies (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2007). The students were randomly selected from grades KG II, grades I, II, III, and V. The students' ages ranged from five to ten years with a mean of seven and a half years. The children that were selected have varying abilities whereby the sample included regular achieving students in addition to special needs students. All of the students were exposed to Arabic, which is their first language, and English, their second language. The target sample was selected based on a two stage random sampling technique, which is a combination of cluster random sampling and individual random sampling (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2008). Out of the preschool and elementary grades (KG II, Gr. I, II, III, and V), the researcher selected 10 students at random from each section (A and B) resulting in a total of 100 students. The advantage of using this sampling procedure is that it is more suitable to be used in schools and it is less time consuming. On the other hand, it is more representative than simple random sampling and cluster sampling (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2008).

Twenty students were selected from each grade with 10 from each section, as mentioned above. The names of all the students in each class was written on small pieces of paper and mixed in a small container. The researcher and the head of preschool or elementary entered each class. The head of each division introduced the researcher by saying “This is Miss Sarah (hypothetical name) she is doing her project in university and needs some help, do you all want to help her?” Everybody was excited and they all said yes enthusiastically. The head of the division continued by saying “she will pick only 10 names from the box with her, when you hear your name please stand up for the Miss to know you (only the preschool students stood up). After she picks the 10 names you will go out of class one by one with Miss Sarah to play two games together. Do you want to play games with Miss Sarah?” Everyone shouted yes.

Each grade contained the following number of boys and girls:

Grade: KG 2 Section: A	Grade: KG 2 Section: B	Grade: 1 Section: A	Grade: 1 Section: B	Grade: 2 Section: A	Grade: 2 Section: B
10 students	10 students	10 students	10 students	10 students	10 students
4 girls & 6 boys	5 girls & 5 boys	5 girls & 5 boys	4 girls & 6 boys	4 girls & 6 boys	4 girls & 6 boys

Grade: 4 Section: A	Grade: 4 Section: B	Grade: 5 Section: A	Grade: 5 Section: B
10 students	10 students	10 students	10 students
4 girls & 6 boys	5 girls & 5 boys	4 girls & 6 boys	5 girls & 5 boys

Ethics

At the beginning of the study, consent was obtained from the school to enter the preschool and elementary classrooms and to administer the tests to the randomly chosen students. Additionally, consent was also obtained from the principle of the school to send questionnaires to parents and to be able to interview the three Arabic teachers. The consent was verbal and not written.

After gaining the approval of the school, informed consent from the students was sought by explaining to them in simple terms why the researcher will select 10 students from the classroom to work with them on two assessments (Cohen et al., 2007).

According to Fine and Sandstorm (1988, as cited in Cohen et al., 2007),

Our feelings is that children should be told as much as possible, even if some of them cannot understand the full explanation. Their age should not diminish their rights, although their level of understanding must be taken into account in the explanations that are shared with them (p. 54).

Names of the students, teachers, parents taking part in the study through the use of the questionnaire and the school were not exposed. Although, the parents were asked to write their names on a small card provided to them and to put this card in the small envelope, this was done only to identify the winning name. In addition to that, the researcher told the parents through a letter attached to the questionnaire to close the small envelope firmly so no name could be visible and only the winning envelope will be opened just to identify the owner of the prize. Other than that detachable small envelope there was no place on the questionnaire that parents needed to write their names or any other

identifying information about them. According to Cohen et al., (2007) anonymity and confidentiality are two important aspects to protect the rights of people.

Instruments

Two instruments in the form of tests and standardized tests were used to collect data to be analyzed in the study.

Body Parts Test.

This is an informal test developed by the investigator. This test consists of a human figure that is drawn with different arrows pointing at different body parts from head to toe. This instrument was selected to assess vocabulary acquisition because Lebanese students possess a difficulty in knowing the different body parts, and they sometimes use the wrong word to identify a certain part. For example, they may refer to the thumb as finger or *isba3*, instead of saying *ibhaam* or *isba3 kabiir*. This informal assessment was meant to uncover vocabulary deficiencies and problem areas in vocabulary instruction in general. The students have to identify orally or in writing the names of the different body parts in English and Arabic. Preschool and lower elementary students who attend grades one and two were asked to respond orally while the upper elementary grades, four and five, would respond in writing for time constraints.

This test was developed by the researcher through the use of an educational puzzle. This educational puzzle is made for children ages four years and up. One of the objectives of this puzzle is to “develop ability to identify and name different body parts” (Creative Educational Aids Pvt. Ltd., 2007). Some modifications were done to the puzzle in order to make it more clear to the students. The picture of the head was changed because it was mainly focusing on the hair and not head. A new picture from the same

game was chosen to represent the head which showed the full head of a boy. In addition to that, three new pictures were added which were pictures of jaw, hip, and waist. The students had to identify each body part in Arabic and not only English. This test was piloted on a few children to make sure that all the pictures were clear and do not cause any ambiguity or confusion to youngsters. Results of the piloting indicated that a few pictures were in fact confusing to the children such as tongue, lips, teeth, wrist, and toe. In order to eliminate this confusion, the researcher had the student look at the picture and then look at her, and pointed to each body part on her own body before saying the answer. Thus, the test was not confusing anymore and all items were henceforth clear.

For the preschool and lower elementary children, the test was administered orally and individually so each item was easily shown by the researcher on her own body. However, for the upper elementary children, the test was administered in writing. To make it easier for them, the researcher added some arrows to try to reduce any potential confusion they might experience. For example, some arrows were added indicate the following: tongue, knee, lips, wrist, and toe. In addition, while the students were doing the test the researcher with the help of her two colleagues were walking between the students to try to get rid of any confusion by showing them the different body parts on their bodies.

The instructions were unified for all the students whether they were doing the test orally or in writing.

Picture Vocabulary Subtest.

Another instrument that was used is a standardized test taken from the Woodcock Johnson-III Tests of Achievement, as Picture Vocabulary subtest. According to Schrank

(2006), the Picture Vocabulary test is based on oral expression whereby the students are given a visual stimulus and they are required to identify orally objects that they see. This standardized test is developed in the US using US norms. This makes it easier to compare the American and Lebanese samples in that the subjects in this investigation will be evaluated based on the WJ-III norms.

The first 32 pictures were used to test the students' picture vocabulary knowledge. The pictures were arranged in an increasing order from easy to difficult. The first item was a sample item, a car, in order for the student to know what to do and how to proceed smoothly through the test. The researcher introduced this item by pointing to the student's page and saying "this is a picture of a car. Put your finger on the car" after the student put his or her finger on the car the researcher instructed the student to say "car" (Woodcock, McGrew, Mather, & Schrank, 2006) the first time in English and the second time in Arabic. The second page was made up of two pictures where the student needed to point to the correct picture. The researcher asked the student to "put his or her finger on the flower" (Woodcock et al., 2006). Then the rest of the pictures were organized to be eight on each page and the last page contained seven pictures to total 32 pictures. From the second test item onwards, the researcher only had to point to the picture on the student's page and ask him or her "what is this?" The student had only one chance to say the correct answer and no hints or extra questioning was allowed. Only on items that included a query, did the student have another chance to say the correct answer. For example, Item Six displays a picture of a clock. The researcher points to the clock and asks the student "What is this?" if the student answers "watch" instead of "clock" the researcher prompts him or her, "Tell me another word". If the student does not answer

“clock” and gives another answer then this item is considered wrong. Not all items contain a query; only 12 items out of the 32 do. Each and every item had to be answered in both languages first in English and then in Arabic.

The pictures start out easy such as a picture of a flower, ball, bed, etc... then they get a little harder to include watermelon, giraffe and grasshopper. The last few pictures are the hardest: thimble, hang glider, hinges, and coliseum.

The procedure explained above was followed with the preschool and the lower elementary students because they were administered the test orally. However, for the upper elementary students, the test was done in writing due to time constraints. The sample item was the only item done orally where the researcher held the paper high in front of each group of students that were being tested. She pointed to the sample car picture and said “this is a picture of a car” and then the students were instructed to start. Next to each picture there were two lines, one line for English and it had the word English written at the beginning of the line and the other line was for Arabic and it had the word Arabic written at the beginning of the line. Only one picture had one line next to it where the students needed to write the name of the picture only in English and this was the picture of a computer. While the students were writing the researcher and two of her colleagues walked between the students to guide them in the items that included a query as explained above. As a result some modifications were needed to be done to include the Arabic language and to make the test in a written format.

Questionnaire

A questionnaire was prepared and sent home with the preschool and lower elementary school children to give to their parents. The questionnaire was made up of ten

statements that tackled the following concepts the usage of different vocabulary words in standard Arabic outside the school context, the difficulty of the words, the usage of games to teach the students different picture vocabulary words, which grade they think the student should start studying standard Arabic, and do the students prefer Arabic or English in studying the different picture vocabulary words. All the questions included a five-point "Likert scale" that ranges from agree or *اووافق /ouwafik/* to strongly disagree or *لا اووافق ابدا /la ouwafik Abadan/*. The parents had to put a check in the box that best described the learning experience of their child (Tseng, Dornyei, & Schmitt, 2006).

In addition to filling out the questionnaire, the parents had the chance to participate in a draw to win a valuable gift. At the top of each questionnaire there is a small envelope with an empty card inside it. Each parent had to write his or her name in the envelope with their phone number for the school to be able to contact them in case of winning. After all the questionnaires were returned, the researcher detached all the small envelopes and mixed them thoroughly with the presence of the elementary school head teacher. One envelope was drawn and the person whose name appeared in the envelope won the gift. The head of the elementary school contacted the parent to come and receive her gift.

Interview

Three interviews were conducted with the Arabic teachers who teach preschool and elementary students. Each interview lasted around 20 to 30 minutes. The questions were extracted from a number of concepts which are the following. The amount of emphasis put on teaching the students different picture vocabulary words, the strategies that are used to teach the students the different vocabulary words, the dialect of Arabic

that is usually used by the teacher, how the different vocabulary words are incorporated into the curriculum, the dialect of Arabic students use when studying, the different resources that are used to teach the children the different picture vocabulary words, is teaching picture vocabulary words in Arabic the same or different using the two varieties of Arabic, and the presence of educated spoken Arabic may be a solution to the effect of diglossia on the language.

Implementation of instruments

The different instruments were administered individually to each student in a familiar setting, in an environment where the student felt comfortable in. For the preschool students the two tests were administered in the hallway next to their classrooms (the only available space) during class time. The hallway was quiet with no disruptions from other students. The order of the tests was counterbalanced. Hence, different groups received the tests in a different order to diminish the possibility that one test when taken first will improve the performance on the next one (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2008). Starting with KG II B the first test that the students took was body parts test. Each student heard the instructions said orally to him or her out loud individually and then he or she was instructed to start the test. The researcher was not allowed to help the students or answer their questions. The second test was the Picture Vocabulary subtest of the Woodcock Johnson. This test aims to assess the strength and weaknesses of the students as mentioned earlier. Each student heard the instructions orally and then they were instructed to start. After each answer the students were praised regardless whether their answer was correct or not in order to keep them motivated to continue. Upon finishing each test, the researcher asked each student if he or she enjoyed what they did. KG II A

students received the two tests in the reverse order. Grades 1A and 2A were administered the Picture Vocabulary subtest then the body parts test while the other two, 1B and 2B were administered the tests in the reverse order with the body parts test first and then the picture vocabulary subtest of WJ-III. Grades 4B and 5A were given the body parts test then the Picture Vocabulary subtest while grades 4A and 5B received the reverse order of the tests. As for the lower elementary students the tests were administered in a quiet room located in the resource room. Finally, for the upper elementary grades, the two tests were administered in the auditorium this is because they did the tests in writing. The students sat in rows in every other chair and the students who sat in the two rows next to each other were working on two different tests. This procedure was adopted to eliminate the possibility of cheating. The instructions for both tests were the same for all grade levels.

After all the tests were administered each test was scored and analyzed by the researcher to determine the vocabulary level of each child.

Throughout the study the researcher conducted face to face interviews with the various Arabic teachers who teach the selected classes. At the same time, the researcher sent the questionnaires with the students to take home and to give it to their parents to fill and return it to school the next day.

Internal Validity

The researcher needs to provide ways to minimize as much as possible internal validity threats. In this study many possible internal validity threats were controlled for such as “instrumentation”, “order bias”, “researcher bias” (Onwuegbuzie, 2000, p. 17), “subject characteristics”, and “location” (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2008, p. 167). To start with, the location in which the interviews took place was held in a familiar setting constant for

all the interviewees. This was done to prevent a location threat to occur. Also the tests were counterbalanced in order to prevent a subject characteristics threat to occur (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2008) and to minimize the risk of an order bias threat (Onwuegbuzie, 2000).

On the other hand, an instrumentation threat can occur if there is more than one data collector. To prevent this threat from occurring, only one data collector who is the researcher was used throughout the study (Onwuegbuzie, 2000). A researcher bias threat can occur if the researcher is knowledgeable about his or her sample. In order to minimize this, the researcher was not knowledgeable about the sample (Onwuegbuzie, 2000).

In summary, the researcher used two types of research designs in conducting the research. The first design is the correlational design where the researcher described a naturally existing phenomenon without any alteration. The second design is the survey research design where the researcher performed three personal interviews with the Arabic teachers who teach KG II grades one and two. A questionnaire was distributed to the parents of these students to obtain information on the use of the two varieties of Arabic. Hundred students were randomly chosen from a private school in kfarshima. From each section (A and B) of the following grades KG II, one, two, four, and five 10 students were randomly chosen with varying abilities to total up to a 100 students. A two stage random sampling technique was used. Before starting the researcher sought consent from the school to enter the different classrooms and from the principle to administer the questionnaires to the parents and to interview the teachers. In addition to that, informed consent was taken from the students. No names were revealed. Two instruments were

used to gather the data. A body parts test and a picture vocabulary subtest of the Woodcock Johnson Battery of tests. The two tests were either orally or in writing depending on the grade level of the students. Instructions were unified and the order of the tests was counterbalanced. The researcher controlled for various internal validity threats.

In the following chapter, sample characteristics, statistical analysis using SPSS version 18.0, comparison of group one students and American norms, and error analysis of the body parts test for grades four and five will be discussed. In addition to that, a detailed discussion follows including the different instruments that were used and the survey and questionnaire.

Chapter Four

Results

Statistical Analysis was done using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 18.0, SPSS Inc, Chicago. Values are reported in the form of mean \pm SD for continuous variables and numbers or percentages for categorical variables.

Independent t-test was used to determine significant differences between the students' performance on each test and continuous variables such as age. Fischer's exact test was used to assess the relationship between students' performance on each test and grade level. And paired sample t-test was used to compare the performance of students in Arabic vs. English. A value of $p < 0.05$ is considered statistically significant.

Sample Characteristics

The sample consisted of 100 students, 20 in each grade. The mean age of the students was $7-11 \pm 1-11$. The mean standard score on the Woodcock Johnson test in English and Arabic respectively were 70.7 ± 10.7 and 82.4 ± 9.1 . The success rate on the Woodcock Johnson test in English and Arabic were respectively 30 % and 69 %. The mean age of group one (grades KG II, 1, and 2) is $6-6 \pm 0-11$ years, whereas the mean age of group two (grades 4 and 5) is $10-4 \pm 0-7$ years. For more details, please refer to table 1 in appendix.

Picture Vocabulary Subtest

The students were grouped into group one (KG II, grades 1 and 2) and group two (grades 4 and 5). There was no significant difference in the success rate (score more than 77.5%) in Arabic between the two groups (68.3% for group 1 vs. 70% for group 2, $p > 0.1$). However in English, students in group one did significantly better than those in

group two (43.3% vs. 10%, $p < 0.0001$). In addition, students did significantly better in Arabic than they did in English according to their mean standard scores (82.4 ± 9.1 vs. 70.7 ± 10.7 , $p < 0.0001$) and according to their mean age equivalent ($5-10 \pm 3-4$ vs. $4-1 \pm 0-11$, $p < 0.0001$). There was also a significant difference between the mean age and mean age equivalent on the Arabic test for students in group two ($10-1 \pm 0-7$ vs. $6-10 \pm 1-2$, $d\text{-means} = 3.3$ years $p < 0.0001$). However this difference remains significant but to a much lesser extent when comparing the mean age and mean age equivalent on the Arabic test for students of group one ($6-6 \pm 0-11$ vs. $5-1 \pm 4-0$, $d\text{-means} = 1.4$ years, $p = 0.01$).

Body Parts Test

English

Interestingly, students in group one were more able to correctly identify the head (73.3% vs. 27.5%, $P < 0.0001$). However students in group two did significantly much better in identifying most of the other body parts including tongue (77.5% vs. 51.7%, $P = 0.012$), shoulder (57.5% vs. 21.7% vs. $P = 0.001$), stomach (87.5% vs. 61.7%, $P = 0.006$), foot (75% vs. 48.3%, $P = 0.012$), jaw (22.5% vs. 0% $P < 0.0001$), lips (45% vs. 25%, $P = 0.05$), forehead (15% vs. 0%, $P = 0.003$), neck (82.5% vs. 63.3%, $p = 0.045$), wrist (12.5% vs. 0%, $p = 0.009$), thumb (57.5% vs. 21.7%, $p = 0.001$), nails (47.5% vs. 15% , $p = 0.001$), toes (42.5% vs. 11.7% , $p = 0.001$). More details are in table 2 in appendix.

Arabic

Students in group one were better in identifying correctly the head (78.3% vs. 27.5%, $p < 0.0001$) and hand (98.3% vs. 82.5%, $p = 0.006$). However students in group two did significantly better in identifying most of the other body parts including shoulder (95% vs. 41.7%, $p < 0.0001$), chest (47.5% vs. 18.3%, $p = 0.003$), elbow (60% vs. 25%, p

= 0.001), hip (22.5% vs. 0%, $p < 0.0001$), knee (77.5% vs. 21.7%, $p < 0.0001$), jaw (27.5% vs. 5%, $p = 0.002$), forehead (37.5% vs. 5%, $p < 0.0001$), chin (80% vs. 40%, $P < 0.0001$), neck (90% vs. 70%, $p = 0.025$), thumb (25% vs. 3.3%, $p = 0.003$), fingers (85% vs. 65%, $p = 0.038$), nails (61.2% vs. 90%, $p = 0.002$), ankle (12.5% vs. 1.7%, $p = 0.036$), heel (30% vs. 1.7%, $p < 0.0001$), toes (25% vs. 6.7%, $p = 0.016$). More details are in table 3 in appendix.

Error Analysis of Body Parts Test

Error analysis of the body parts test for grades four and five is the following:

English

Body Parts	Wrong Answers	Percentages (%)
Head	Face	32.5
	Hair	40
Tongue	Lips	2.5
	Mouth	2.5
	Lung	5
	Don't know	12.5
Hand	Arm	5
	Don't know	12.5
Shoulder	Hand	2.5
	Stomach	2.5
	Upper part of the body	2.5
	Don't know	32.5

Chest	Heart	25
	Hand	2.5
	Body	10
	Lung	2.5
	Stomach	2.5
	Don't know	40
Elbow	Arm	15
	Hand soap	2.5
	Hand Bone	2.5
	Ankle	2.5
	Hand	2.5
	The bottom of the hand	2.5
	Bone	2.5
	Knee	2.5
	Don't know	57.5
Hip	Pack Back	2.5
	Underwear	2.5
	Body	2.5
	The sides	2.5
	Stomach	5
	Wrist	2.5
	Thigh	2.5
	Don't know	77.5

Stomach	Stomach Button	2.5
	Don't know	10
Leg	Foot	7.5
	Don't know	10
Knee	Leg soap	2.5
	Bone	5
	Knuckle	2.5
	Foot	2.5
	Leg	2.5
	Bone of the leg	2.5
	Leg joint	2.5
	Don't know	40
Foot	Toes	5
	Leg	7.5
	Don't know	12.5
Jaw	Cheek	15
	Hear	2.5
	Head	7.5
	Throat	2.5
	Lungs	2.5
	Don't know	47.5
Forehead	Head	27.5
	Brain	2.5

	Lip	2.5
	Cheek	2.5
	Don't know	45
Ear	Near	2.5
	Don't know	10
Teeth	Tooths	2.5
	Don't know	12.5
Chin	Cheek	2.5
	Neck	2.5
	Don't know	50
Neck	Throat	7.5
	Heart	2.5
	Knee	2.5
	Don't know	5
Waist	Hips	2.5
	Back	5
	Pack back	2.5
	Stomach	17.5
	Side of stomach	2.5
	Wrist	2.5
	Don't know	62.5
Wrist	Back Bone	2.5
	Hand	20

	Knuckle	2.5
	Skin	2.5
	Fist	2.5
	The bone hand	2.5
	Don't know	55
Thumb	Big Toes	2.5
	Finger	12.5
	Big finger	2.5
	Don't know	22.5
Fingers	Hand Toes	2.5
	Don't know	7.5
Nails	Toe nails	2.5
	Thumb	2.5
	Finger	5
	Don't know	40
Ankle	Leg bone	5
	Bone	10
	Marble of the leg	2.5
	Don't know	72.5
Heel	Feet	5
	Back foot	2.5
	Bottom of the foot	2.5
	Last of the leg	2.5

	Bone	2.5
	Behind the foot	2.5
	Don't know	80
Toe	Feet toes	2.5
	Leg fingers	2.5
	Big	2.5
	Nail	2.5
	Thumb	5
	Finger toe	2.5
	Finger of leg	5
	Finger	7.5
	Don't know	27.5

Arabic

Body Parts	Wrong Answers	Percentages (%)
Head (رأس)	Face (وجة)	32.5
	Hair (شعر)	40
Nose (منخار أو أنف)	Mouth (فم)	2.5
Tongue (لسان)	Don't know (لا إجابة)	2.5
Hand (يد)	Palm (كف)	15
	Don't know (لا إجابة)	2.5
Shoulder (كتف)	Hand (يد)	2.5

	Don't know (لا إجابة)	2.5
Chest (صدر)	Heart (قلب)	2.5
	Waist (خصر)	2.5
	Body (جسم)	5
	Stomach (بطن)	2.5
	Don't know (لا إجابة)	17.5
Elbow (كوع)	Arm (ذراع)	2.5
	Bottom of hand (كعب اليد)	2.5
	Bone (العظمة)	2.5
	Bone of hand (عظم إيد)	2.5
	Hand (يد)	7.5
	Knee (ركبة)	2.5
	Don't know (لا إجابة)	20
Hip (ورك)	Waist (خصر)	37.5
	rib (ضلع)	2.5
	Thigh (فخذ)	2.5
	underwear (السروال)	2.5
	Stomach (بطن)	7.5
	Edges (الجناب)	2.5
	Don't know (لا إجابة)	22.5
Stomach (بطن أو معدة)	Belly button (الزكرة)	7.5
	Don't know (لا إجابة)	2.5

Leg (اجر)	Foot (قدم) Thigh (فخد) Don't know (لا إجابة)	12.5 2.5 5
Knee (ركبة)	Foot (قدم) Heel (كعب) Bone (العظمة) Leg (اجر) Elbow of leg (كوع الرجل) Don't know (لا إجابة)	2.5 5 2.5 2.5 2.5 7.5
Foot (قدم)	Fingers of leg (اصابع القدم) Fingers (اصابع) Small foot (قدم صغيرة) Don't know (لا إجابة)	2.5 2.5 2.5 22.5
Jaw (فك)	Cheeks (خدود) Hair (شعر) Head (راس) The opening of the mouth (فتحت النم) Don't know (لا إجابة)	25 2.5 10 2.5 32.5
Forehead (جبين)	Brain (عقل) Head (راس) Eyebrows (الحواجب) Lip (شفة)	5 27.5 5 2.5

	Don't know (لا إجابة)	22.5
Lips (شفة)	Mouth (فم)	27.5
	Don't know (لا إجابة)	2.5
Chin (ذقن)	Bone (عظم)	2.5
	Moustache (سكسوك)	2.5
	Don't know (لا إجابة)	15
Neck (رقبة)	Throat (زلعوم)	2.5
	Chest (الصدر)	2.5
	Don't know (لا إجابة)	5
Waist (خصر)	Stomach (بطن)	22.5
	Back (ظهر)	5
	Hip (ورك)	2.5
	Don't know (لا إجابة)	17.5
Wrist (المعصم)	Arm (ذراع)	2.5
	Bracelet (سلسلة)	2.5
	Hand (يد)	20
	Bone of hand (عضمة اليد)	5
	Don't know (لا إجابة)	67.5
Thumb (أصبع كبير أو إبهام)	Finger (أصبع)	22.5
	Big (كبير)	2.5
	First finger (أول أصبع)	2.5
	Nail (ظفر)	5
	Don't know (لا إجابة)	42.5

Fingers (أصابع)	Four nails (أربع أظافر)	2.5
	Finger (أصبع)	10
	Don't know (لا إجابة)	2.5
Nails (أظافر)	Nails of finger (الأصابع)	2.5
	(الأظافر)	5
	Finger (أصبع)	2.5
	Don't know (لا إجابة)	
Ankle (كاحل)	Bone (عظم)	12.5
	Veins (شريان)	2.5
	Hip (ورك)	2.5
	Bone of leg (عضمة الرجل)	5
	Foot (الرجل)	2.5
	Heel of leg (كعب الرجل)	2.5
	Nails of leg (ظفير الرجل)	2.5
	Don't know (لا إجابة)	57.5
Heel (كعب)	Head of leg (راس الرجل)	2.5
	Foot (اجر)	5
	Back of leg (القدم المؤخرة)	2.5
	Knee (ركبة)	2.5
	Elbow of leg (كوع الرجل)	2.5
	Bone (عضمة)	2.5
	Don't know (لا إجابة)	52.5
Toe (أصبع القدم)	Big finger (اصبع الكبير)	5

	Nails (ظفير)	7.5
	Finger (أصبع)	25
	Big (كبير)	2.5
	Thumb (إبهام)	5
	Don't know (لا إجابة)	30

Discussion

After administering the Picture Vocabulary subtest of the Woodcock Johnson to the randomly selected sample of 100 students in both languages English and Arabic, diglossia was found to affect vocabulary acquisition and the students revealed that they are more confident in Arabic and not English. Details are discussed below.

Picture Vocabulary Subtest

The above results indicate that students in grades KG II, 1, and 2 had similar vocabulary acquisition in Arabic as compared to those in grades 4 and 5. On the other hand, the younger group had better vocabulary in English. In addition, students did significantly better in Arabic than English as expected, because Arabic is their first language. Interestingly, both the higher and lower grade students did worse in Arabic than the American students in English. This might be due to the fact that the Arabic language poses more challenges and may be more difficult to learn than the English language by including noncognate words which makes vocabulary learning in Arabic a major challenge (Ryding & Bin Said, n.d.). Unlike the English language, Arabic has two forms: the one learned at home (colloquial Arabic) being different from the one studied at

school (standard Arabic). Apparently, it is easier for American students to learn the English vocabulary than for Lebanese students to learn the Arabic vocabulary.

Body Parts Test

In both English and Arabic, lower grade students were more likely to identify the basic vocabulary such as head and hand. On the other hand, higher grades students were more likely to identify most of the complex body parts. This might be due to the fact that because higher level students know more vocabulary than lower grade students, they will most of the time give more specific answers to simple questions. For example, when asked to name the head, they often give specific answers such as face and hair as per the error analysis done on their answers. On the other hand, it is well known that higher grade students know more body parts vocabulary than lower grade students and that is why they did better on most of the complex words.

Questionnaire

The data collected from the questionnaires administered to the parents of the students in group one (KG II, grades 1 and 2) showed that students are more competent in using the English language and the parents were aware that Arabic is a difficult language for their children. This is consistent with the results as the majority of the questions that were related to body parts vocabulary were agreed on by the majority of the parents to be difficult for their children and most parents needed to 'translate' words from standard Arabic to colloquial Arabic when reading. In addition to that, most parents agreed that their children did not prefer Arabic over English.

Parents disagreed with the claim that their children knew the following vocabulary words related to different body parts: jaw (64.8%), thumb (66%), wrist

(69.2%), heel (55.6%), and hip (44.4%) in Arabic. But they agreed that their children knew the following vocabulary words that are related to body parts in Arabic: knee (85.5%), Elbow (75.9%), and waist (81.5%). Parents also agreed (68.9%) that the vocabulary words related to different body parts are difficult for their children to understand until grade two. Using pictures from books and games to teach the children vocabulary words were two ways of teaching that parents agreed to be used at home with their children (48.1% and 35.7% respectively). Parents indicated that their children prefer using English over Arabic when dealing with picture vocabulary words such as body parts or others. In other words, 64.8% of parents agreed that their children prefer to use English when dealing with different picture vocabulary words whereas 53.8% of parents disagreed that their children preferred to use Arabic when dealing with different picture vocabulary words. In addition, 57.1% of parents disagreed that their children preferred to use the Arabic language over the English language. Parents agreed (87.5%) that children do not fully understand words read to them by their parents in standard Arabic and this obliges parents to 'translate' some words to colloquial Arabic. Parents agreed (67.9%) that children need to start studying standard Arabic from kindergarten classes because this will help them to acquire the different vocabulary words in the elementary grades. Finally, for the statement that American children of the same age as our children are familiar with vocabulary words such as waist, jaw, hips, and others 27.3% agreed and 29.1% disagreed.

Parents agreed on the claim that it would be difficult for their children to know the majority of picture vocabulary words related to body parts before grade two. This may be due to children disliking the Arabic language because the second language that

they study, English, is more emphasized in school and it is more accepted in the society than Arabic. Moreover a lot of parents do not speak Arabic at home with their children they speak English with them in order for them to be more fluent in English this makes them less familiar with Arabic vocabulary words. According to Hammer et al., (2009) some studies revealed that when students' first language was used at home this resulted in higher literacy outcomes in school. Added to this the amount of exposure is important to take into consideration because children need several exposures to a word in order for learning to happen (Miralpeix, 2007).

As for ways of teaching vocabulary words using picture books and games are two ways parents use with their children. The literature emphasizes that students need to deeply process vocabulary words in order for the words to be stored in their long term memory (Ellis and Beaton 1993a, as cited in Vidal, 2003). In a language that does not include much research based strategies to teach students vocabulary words, teachers need to be able to teach the students to focus on the process of learning and not the product. It is the process that is an asset for them and allows them to advance in school.

Pertaining to the use of both languages, Arabic and English, children prefer to express themselves in English than in Arabic. The reason behind such a behavior may be because the Arabic language is considered to be difficult and to encompass a negative attitude. Furthermore, students did not understand all standard Arabic words when being read to them through the use of stories by their parents. Parents needed to 'translate' some of the words to colloquial Arabic. This may be due to diglossia because children are used to talking in colloquial Arabic, which is their mother tongue. While standard Arabic is considered as if it is a new language to them so the presence of both varieties confuses

the children (Abu Rabia, 2000). The Arabic language is a very dry and difficult language for children. It is recommended that the way the teacher presents the Arabic language to the students needs to be appealing (Brosh & Olshtain, 1995). The need to start teaching standard Arabic starting from kindergarten as the majority of the parents agreed will help the students to become better in Arabic. Furthermore a study conducted in Israel using a pretest posttest design revealed that using standard Arabic with students in kindergarten made them more familiar with the language and allowed them to have a stronger use of words (Feitelson, Goldstein, Iraqi & Share, 1993). According to Ayari (1996) students need to be exposed to standard Arabic starting from an early age as a way to familiarize the children with the language of instruction.

Interview

The three teachers who were interviewed agreed on one point that the Arabic language is a difficult language for the students and that the use of standard Arabic alone to teach vocabulary words would make it more difficult for the children to understand. Added to this they will detest the language. The three teachers said that it is important to use both dialects of Arabic when teaching picture vocabulary to the students. According to them, the teaching of picture vocabulary is the same in both dialects of Arabic, standard and colloquial. This is because they use colloquial Arabic only for explanation and as a way to help the students understand standard Arabic. Only one teacher said that there is around 20% difference between both dialects because there are some words that are used in standard Arabic that can not be used in colloquial Arabic.

Results of the interview revealed that the three Arabic teachers who were interviewed used to a certain degree the same strategies to teach the students of group one

(KG II, grades 1 and 2) the different picture vocabulary words. The strategies that are used in the classrooms with the students are the following: picture cards, educational games, students bring items from home to use in class such as plastic cups, animals, toothbrush, etc., watch a movie, showing pictures using the overhead projector, students act out the words, and work on projects. Only one Arabic teacher translates some words to English in order for the students to understand the words even though she knows that this is not permitted in school but she tries everything for the students to understand. There is a reliance on the use of pictures in the three grades and this parallels the results of Akbari's (2008) experiment that pictures play an important role in teaching vocabulary words to elementary students.

Moreover, the resources that the students used were also very similar such as toys, drawing books, blackboard, small books, play dough, photocopied exercises (اوراق مطبوعة), and objects that the students can bring from home. For example, when grade one students were studying the word telephone (هاتف) they brought with them to school plastic cups and thread. In class they attached two plastic cups together by using some thread, with the help of the teacher, and in such a way they made a telephone. Then they started listening to each other through the telephones that they made. Grade two teacher has a book that is filled with pictures and exercises and she considers this book as a resource by which she photocopies papers from for her students and they work on it during class time.

All three teachers stated that the strategies that were used were based on interactive learning by allowing the students to work in groups or by working with the teacher.

Furthermore, two Arabic teachers said that students enjoyed studying different picture vocabulary words through the use of educational games, writing on the blackboard, and working on a project because they like to use their hands such as in drawing, cutting, and coloring. KG II teacher said that if a word was easy then the students do not need educational games and other strategies to understand the meaning on the contrary they can understand the meaning directly through teacher centered direct instruction. But according to Fang and Xi-ya (2009) students can not deeply understand and retain the meaning of words in their memory from a single encounter they need several encounters to understand. Only when teaching harder words, she uses educational games with the students. Drawing helps students concentrate according to grade one Arabic teacher and that is why she uses this method a lot in class. Furthermore, she gave an example of a lesson about teeth. Students had to bring toothbrush and toothpaste to school and actually brush their teeth in order to learn how we can take care of our teeth. In such a way they also understood the meaning of toothbrush and toothpaste. Out of the three teachers one teacher stated that the students do not have a specific way that they prefer to study the different picture vocabulary words. She added that young students like to do what the teacher tells them to do. She later said that her students love to write on the board as a way of learning.

All three teachers use colloquial Arabic for explaining the different picture vocabulary words for the students. They claim that colloquial Arabic is easier for them to understand and they are used to hearing this dialect. The lower elementary teachers, grades one and two, said that they explain the lesson first in colloquial Arabic and after the students have understood they start using standard Arabic. Grade one teacher

explained her reliance on colloquial Arabic by stating that standard Arabic is a strange dialect for first graders. The students will not enjoy hearing this dialect nor would they like the teacher that speaks it. She added that sometimes the students say the meaning of the words in English because they do not know how to say them in Arabic so if she explains in standard Arabic then the students will not participate. But when she explains using colloquial Arabic then they all participate. Moreover she emphasized that we are living in a culture that speaks colloquial Arabic and not standard Arabic. After she explains the words in colloquial Arabic and repeats the explanation again she then starts interacting with the students in standard Arabic. This is the only way that the students will interact using standard Arabic. Whereas, grade two teacher explained her reliance on colloquial Arabic by stating that students enter grade two with a weak base in standard Arabic and she blames previous teachers that they are not using the standard Arabic dialect with the students so she is obliged to use colloquial Arabic. She emphasized that standard Arabic is a tough and dry language so when she uses it in class with the students, after she has finished explaining using colloquial Arabic; she adds a musical tone to the dialect for the students to like it. Furthermore, grade one teacher highlighted several body parts vocabulary words that are the same in both dialects such as: eye (عين), ear (اذن), and hand (يد). Even though there exists an overlap between both dialects the students still prefer colloquial Arabic because they use this dialect at home, with friends, in the community and standard Arabic for them is only linked to studying. Contrary to what KG II and grade one teachers said, grade two teacher stated that in relation to vocabulary related to body parts the students prefer to use standard Arabic. This is because they are shy to use colloquial Arabic when referring to different body parts. The

main reason behind this is that the colloquial dialect in Lebanon changes from region to region depending from which part of the country they come from. When a student says a body part in a colloquial dialect that is not familiar to the others everyone starts laughing. For example, instead of saying nose (منخار) a student said منخور and everyone started laughing. Students feel that the use of standard Arabic in relation to body parts is more formal and proper according to grade two teacher. Moreover most of the students enjoy learning the different body parts vocabulary words. Grade one teacher pointed out that there is not a lot of emphasis on teaching body parts vocabulary in Arabic. She uses several techniques as described above to let them enjoy it because they do not like to study.

Vocabulary words are incorporated into the curriculum mainly through reading, pictures, letters, listening to tapes, and the exercise book. Emphasis on the different picture vocabulary words is through exercises, and repetition. The grade two teacher tells her students that their mind is like a container and that they need to store the different vocabulary words in it.

Two teachers agreed that both dialects of Arabic are very close to each other. One said that the difference between them is related to pronunciation of the words and the other teacher said that the 20% difference is mainly because there are some words that are used in standard Arabic but can not be used in colloquial Arabic. While only one teacher said that both dialects are very close to each other which makes picture vocabulary acquisition the same in both dialects.

Two teachers believed that the introduction of educated spoken Arabic or middle Arabic would benefit the students and be a solution to the problem of diglossia. In the

literature, educated spoken Arabic is thought to reduce the diglossic distance between both dialects of the language (Brosh & Olshtain, 1995). Whereas one teacher said that this might or can be a solution to the problem of diglossia but she is not knowledgeable about this topic.

Grade one teacher believes that Lebanese students are at the same level in identifying picture vocabulary words as American students even though American students use colloquial English which is very similar to standard English. This is not the case in Arabic and the Arabic language is harder than English. The other two teachers believe that the American students are better than the Lebanese students in identifying different picture vocabulary words. The reason for that is that the English language is easier than Arabic and it does not include the complicated Arabic grammar. Added to that one teacher noted that the role of the parents is very important. It is important that parents read to their children at home on a regular basis so the child will be familiar with the words in standard Arabic. According to Feitelson, Goldstein, Iraqi & Share (1993) not exposing the students to standard Arabic starting from kindergarten dispossess the students from knowledge and skills that are needed to help them later on in school.

One teacher, KG II teacher, explained that there is a difference when using either dialect of Arabic to teach the students different picture vocabulary words. According to her, young students understand colloquial Arabic faster than standard Arabic. It is easier for them to study the words in colloquial Arabic and then to 'translate' them into standard Arabic. This is because young students need more time to understand standard Arabic. On the other hand, the other two teachers agreed that there is no difference in using either dialect when explaining the different vocabulary words. Colloquial Arabic acts as a

facilitator for standard Arabic and it is only used for explanation. In other words, mixing both dialects is important for the lower elementary grades as the two teachers discussed. In such a way the teachers are in parallel with Albatal, (1992, as cited in Brosh & Olshtain, 1995) where she states that combining both varieties of the language may be useful and colloquial Arabic acts as a facilitator to standard Arabic. When it comes to writing the words, standard Arabic is mainly used because colloquial Arabic is only for explanation. According to Ferguson (1971, as cited in Brosh & Olshtain, 1995) the problem of diglossia can not be solved unless one variety of the language is taught or learned.

In conclusion, results of the picture vocabulary subtest of the Woodcock Johnson revealed that diglossia affects vocabulary acquisition of the students. This was evident when both groups did worse in Arabic than American students in English. While results of the body parts test revealed that group one students were able to identify the basic vocabulary words whereas group two students were able to identify complex vocabulary words.

Results of the questionnaire revealed that group one students were more competent in English than Arabic and preferred English over Arabic. Moreover, Arabic was a difficult language for their children. Also parents pointed out that a lot of words need to be 'translated' to colloquial Arabic to be understood while reading. Body parts vocabulary words were difficult to understand until grade two. Parents agreed that exposure to standard Arabic from kindergarten would help the children in acquiring different picture vocabulary words.

In the Interview, the three teachers agreed that Arabic is a difficult language for the students to understand. Only relying on standard Arabic would complicate matters even more. The three teachers agreed that it is important to use both dialects of the language when teaching. They use colloquial Arabic in class as a way to facilitate standard Arabic for the students.

In the next chapter, the researcher discusses the conclusion of the project. In addition to that, the researcher discusses two limitations pertaining to the project and further research that is needed in the field of diglossia and vocabulary acquisition.

Chapter Five

Conclusion

This study had two objectives. The main purpose was to determine if diglossia impedes vocabulary acquisition of Lebanese bilingual students in the lower elementary grades: KG II, grades, one and two. The second purpose was to determine which language, Arabic or English, students have a preference for relative to vocabulary use.

In this study the researcher attempted to address two main hypotheses. First, diglossia may have a negative effect on vocabulary acquisition of Lebanese bilingual students. Second, this negative effect, if any, tends to disappear with time, as students get older.

Results of two tests: The Picture vocabulary subtest of the WJ-III Achievement Battery and an informal test of body parts in both languages English and Arabic showed the following:

Students' answers on the picture vocabulary subtest indicated that there was no major difference between group one and group two in Arabic vocabulary acquisition in contrast to English vocabulary acquisition. Both groups did better in Arabic than English. Learning Arabic vocabulary is riddled with several challenges. One of these is diglossia which may be an explanation why Lebanese students did worse in Arabic than did the American students in English.

Results of the body parts test in Arabic indicated that students in grades KG II, one, and two were better at identifying simple body parts such as head and hand. On the other hand, students in grades four and five were better at identifying the more difficult

body parts vocabulary (thigh, elbow, shoulder, etc...) because when students advance in school, their vocabulary improves.

In addition, the three Arabic teachers who were interviewed had several opinions about vocabulary acquisition and diglossia. Most of them were aware of the effect of diglossia on vocabulary acquisition. All the teachers mentioned techniques that are used to enhance vocabulary acquisition in Arabic taking into consideration the effect of diglossia. However the effectiveness of these techniques is not well established. That is probably one of the reasons why our students performed poorer in vocabulary than their American counterparts.

There are several reasons why students in the US norms performed better than Lebanese students in vocabulary. Our study provides evidence that the strategies and approaches to teaching vocabulary used in our schools may be less elaborate and research based than those used in American Schools. However this is not enough to explain the big difference in vocabulary acquisition between our students and American students. An important factor that may also explain that difference is diglossia, which is a main challenge to vocabulary acquisition in Arabic. According to Ayari (1996), the illiteracy that is present in the Arab world is due to diglossia which has affected the students' academic achievement. Due to several confounding variables that affect vocabulary acquisition, it is difficult to assess whether the effect of diglossia increases with age. However, this study showed that vocabulary acquisition of the students in Arabic worsens with age. This is probably because when children grow older, their vocabulary acquisition improves.

Teachers should be aware of the effect of diglossia on vocabulary and try to compensate for this effect by introducing new strategies or techniques to enhance the students' vocabulary acquisition in Arabic which will hopefully encourage them to "learn to read instead of read to learn (Maamouri 1998, p. 45)."

This study is unprecedented because no known similar studies were conducted on vocabulary development of Lebanese bilingual students. Most of the studies done on diglossia and Arabic are mainly related to reading and not vocabulary.

Limitations of the study

There are several limitations for the study. First, the students were selected from a single private school, a procedure which might introduce a selection bias. Second, the findings of this study are only generalizable to the school in question and not to the entire population.

Further Research

Additional research is needed to target the effect of diglossia in Arabic on vocabulary acquisition. This is because vocabulary acquisition in Arabic is considered a major challenge due to the language possessing noncognate words (Ryding & Bin Said, n.d.) as previously mentioned. Furthermore, the importance of vocabulary acquisition cannot be undermined and according to Mei-fang (2008, p. 1), "if language structures make up the skeleton of language, then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh."

Arabic vocabulary strategies that are research based need to be developed to help the students' process vocabulary words and also help them retain these words. By developing new, interactive, and entertaining Arabic vocabulary strategies, the students

will be more motivated to study and accept the language which will improve their vocabulary acquisition.

References

- Abu-Rabia, S. (2000). Effects of exposure to literary Arabic on reading comprehension in a diglossic situation. *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal*, 13, 147-157.
- Akbari, O. (2008). Teaching vocabulary items through contextualization and picture to elementary Iranian EFL students. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 10(3), 53-77.
- Anzovin studio. (2000-2010). Retrieved February 17, 2010, from http://www.anzovin.com/products/manual_TFM1Maya_01.html
- Ayari, S. (1996). Diglossia and illiteracy in the Arab world. *Language, Culture, and Curriculum*, 9(3), 243-253.
- Barcroft, J. (2007). Effects of opportunities for word retrieval during second language vocabulary learning. *Language Learning*, 57(1), 35-56.
- Bar-Lev, Z. (2005-2006). Arabic key consonants. *Journal of Arabic and Islamic Studies*, 6, 24-63.
- Brigance, A. H. & Glascoe, F. P. (2002). *Brigance® diagnostic inventory of early development-II*. MA: Curriculum Associates, Inc.
- Broady, E. (2008). Fragmentation and consolidation: recent articles on vocabulary acquisition. *Language Learning Journal*, 36(2), 259-265.
- Brosh, H., & Olshtain, E. (1995). Language skills and the curriculum of a diglossic Language. *Foreign Language Annals*, 28(2), 247-60.
- Call, M. E. (1985). Auditory short-term memory, listening comprehension, and the input hypothesis. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19(4), 765-781.

- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education* (6th ed). London: Routledge.
- Creative Educational Aids Pvt. Ltd. (2007). *Body Parts: helps learn various body parts and children's clothing*. [Board game]. India: Toy City.
- Cummins, J. (1979). Linguistic interdependence and the educational development of bilingual children. *Review of Educational Research*, 49(2), 222-251.
- De Groot, A. M. B., & Keijzer, R. (2000). What is hard to learn is easy to forget: the roles of word concreteness, cognate status, and word frequency in foreign-language vocabulary learning and forgetting. *Language Learning*, 50 (1), 1-56.
- De La Fuente, M. J. (2006). Classroom L2 vocabulary acquisition: investigating the role of pedagogical tasks and form-focused instruction. *Language Teaching Research*, 10(3), 263-295.
- Duursma, E., Romero-Contreras, S., Szuber, A., Proctor, P., Snow, C., August, D. et al. (2007). The role of home literacy and language environment on bilinguals' English and Spanish vocabulary development. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 28(1), 171-190.
- Elley, W. B. (1989). Vocabulary acquisition from listening to stories. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 24(2), 174-187.
- Fang, Z., & Xi-ya, D. (2009). Critical analysis of current lexical presentation and pedagogic considerations. *Sino-US English Teaching*, 6(2), 9-13.
- Feilston, D., Goldstein, Z., Iraqi, J., & Share, D. L. (1993). Effects of listening to story reading on aspects of literacy acquisition in a diglossic situation. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 28, 71-79.

- Folse, K.S. (2006). The effect of type of written exercises on L2 vocabulary retention. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(2), 273-293.
- Fraenkel, R. J., & Wallen, E. N. (2008). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. New York: Mc Graw-Hill.
- Gu, P. Y. (2003). Vocabulary learning in a second language: person, task, context and strategies. *TESL-EJ*, 7(2), 1-25.
- Hall, C. J. (2002). The automatic cognate form assumptions: evidence for the parasitic model of vocabulary development. *IRAL*, 40, 69-87.
- Hammer, C. S., Davison, M. D., Lawrence, F.R., & Miccio, A.W. (2009). The effects of maternal language on bilingual children's vocabulary and emergent literacy development during head start and kindergarten. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, 13(2), 99-121.
- Khaldieh, S. A. (2001). The relationship between knowledge of I □ raab, lexical knowledge, and reading comprehension of nonnative readers of Arabic. *The Modern Language Journal*, 85(3), 416-429.
- Khubchandani, L. M. (1985). Diglossia revisited. *Oceanic Linguistics Special Publications*, 20, 199-211.
- Kim, Y. (2008). The contribution of collaborative and individual tasks to the acquisition of L2 vocabulary. *The Modern Language Journal*, 92(1), 114-130.
- Lawson, M. J., & Hogben, D. (1996). The vocabulary-learning strategies of foreign-language students. *Language Learning*, 46(1), 101-135.

- Maamouri, M. (1998). Language education and human development: Arabic diglossia and its impact on the quality of education in the Arab region. Paper presented at the Mediterranean development forum, Philadelphia. (ERIC Document Reproduction Services No. ED456669)
- Mei-fang, L. (2008). Teachers' role in vocabulary teaching: strategies for vocabulary teaching. *Sino-US English Teaching*, 5(8), 1-6.
- Mezynski, K. (1983). Issues concerning the acquisition of knowledge: effects of vocabulary training on reading comprehension. *Review of Educational Research*, 53(2), 253-279.
- Milton, J., & Hopkins N. (2006). Comparing phonological and orthographic vocabulary size: do vocabulary tests underestimate the knowledge of some learners. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 63(1), 127-147.
- Min, H. (2008). EFL vocabulary acquisition and retention: reading plus vocabulary enhancement activities and narrow reading. *Language Learning*, 58(1), 73-115.
- Miralpeix, I. (2007). Lexical knowledge in instructed language learning: the effects of age and exposure. *International Journal of English Studies*, 7(2), 61-83.
- Morimoto, S., & Loewen, S. (2007). A comparison of the effects of image-schema-based instruction and translation-based instruction on the acquisition of L2 polysemous words. *Language Teaching Research*, 11(3), 347-372.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2000). Expanding the framework of internal and external validity in quantitative research. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the association for the advancement of educational research. (Eric Document Reproduction Services No. ED448205)

- Penno, J. F., Wilkinson, I. A. G., & Moore, D. W. (2002). Vocabulary acquisition from teacher explanation and repeated listening to stories: do they overcome the Matthew effect? *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 94(1), 23-33.
- Richards, J. C. (1976). The role of vocabulary teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 10(1), 77-89.
- Robbins, C., & Ehri, L. C. (1994). Reading storybooks to kindergartners helps them learn new vocabulary words. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 86(1), 54-64.
- Roberts, T. A. (2008). Home storybook reading in primary or second language with preschool children: evidence of equal effectiveness for second-language vocabulary acquisition. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 43(2), 103-130.
- Rott, S. (2007). The effect of frequency of input-enhancements on word learning and text comprehension. *Language Learning*, 57(2), 165-199.
- Ryding, K. C. (n.d.). Some key issues in learning Arabic as a foreign language. Retrieved May 4, 2010, from Georgetown University, Department of Arabic and Islamic Studies Web site: <http://www1.georgetown.edu/departments/arabic/about/issues/>
- Ryding, K. C. (1991). Proficiency despite diglossia: a new approach for Arabic. *The Modern Language Journal*, 75(2), 212-218.
- Saiegh-Haddad, E. (2003). Linguistic distance and initial reading acquisition: the case of Arabic diglossia. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 24, 431-451.
- Schrank, A. F. (2006). *Specification of the cognitive processes involved in performance on the Woodcock-Johnson III* (Assessment Service Bulletin No. 7). Itasca, IL: Riverside Publishing. Retrieved December, 29, 2008, from <http://www.assess.nelson.com/pdf/asb-7.pdf>

- Schreuder, R., & Weltens, B. (Eds.). (1993). *The bilingual lexicon*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Senechal, M., Thomas, E., & Monker, J. (1995). Individual differences in 4-year-old children's acquisition of vocabulary during storybook reading. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 87(2), 218-229.
- Shewell, J. (2009). Vocabulary acquisition and teaching. *TESOL Arabia Perspectives*, 16(3), 41-43.
- Stanovich, K. E. (1986). Matthew effects in reading: some consequences of individual differences in the acquisition of literacy. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 21(4), 360-407.
- Swanson, E. A., & Howerton, D. (2007). Influence vocabulary acquisition for English language learners. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 42(5), 290-294.
- Tonzar, C., Lotto, L., & Job, R. (2009). L2 vocabulary acquisition in children: effects of learning method and cognate status. *Language Learning*, 59(3), 623-643.
- Tseng, W., Dörnyei, Z., & Schmitt, N. (2006). A new approach to assessing strategic learning: the case of self-regulation in vocabulary acquisition. *Applied Linguistics*, 27(1), 78-102.
- Ultimate Sports Nutrition (USN). (2009). *Hip to waist ratio calculator*. Retrieved February 17, 2010, from http://www.usn.co.uk/tools/calculators/hip_to_waist_ratio.aspx
- Versteegh, K. (2001). *The Arabic language*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- Vidal, K. (2003). Academic listening: a source of vocabulary acquisition? *Applied Linguistics*, 24(1), 56-89.

Waist Measurement. (1995-2010). Retrieved February 17, 2010, from

<http://www.health.com/health/library/mdp/0,,zm6241,00.html>

Webb, S. (2007). Learning word pairs and glossed sentences: the effects of a single context on vocabulary knowledge. *Language Teaching Research*, 11(1), 63-81.

Woodcock, R.W., McGrew, K.S., Mather, N., & Schrank, F.A. (2006). *Woodcock-Johnson® III*. IL: Riverside Publishing.

Zughoul, M. R., & El-Badarien, M. (2004). Diglossia in literary translation: accommodation into translation theory. *Meta*, 49(2), 447-456.

Appendices

- A. Sample Characteristics (Table 1)
- B. Table 2
- C. Table 3
- D. Group I students vs. Brigance guidelines
- E. Sample of the body parts test
- F. Sample of the answer sheet of the body parts test
- G. Sample of the questionnaire
- H. Sample of the interview and the results

Sample Characteristics (**Table 1**)

Mean Age	7.9 ± 1.9
Mean Standard Score (English)	70.7 ± 10.7
Mean Standard Score (Arabic)	82.4 ± 9.1
Success Rate (English)	30%
Success Rate (Arabic)	69%
Mean Age Group 1 (grades KG2, 1, & 2)	6.5 ± 0.9
Mean Age Group 2 (grades 4 & 5)	10.3 ± 0.6

Table 2

Body Parts	% Correct in English (group I)	% Correct in English (group II)	P Value
Head	73.3	27.5	P < 0.000
Eye	96.7	100	P = 0.515
Nose	96.7	100	P = 0.515
Tongue	51.7	77.5	P = 0.012
Hand	95	82.5	P = 0.084
Chest	8.3	17.5	P = 0.213
Shoulder	21.7	57.5	P = 0.001
Elbow	8.3	7.5	P = 1.000
Hip	0	2.5	P = 0.400
Leg	83.3	82.5	P = 1.000
Stomach	61.7	87.5	P = 0.006
Knee	21.7	37.5	P = 0.112
Foot	48.3	75	P = 0.012
Jaw	0	22.5	P < 0.000
Ear	86.7	87.5	P = 1.000
Lips	25	45	P = 0.051
Teeth	76.7	85	P = 0.445
Forehead	0	15	P = 0.003
Chin	25	40	P = 0.127
Neck	63.3	82.5	P = 0.045
Waist	5	5	P = 1.000
Wrist	0	12.5	P = 0.009
Thumb	21.7	57.5	P = 0.001
Fingers	75	90	P = 0.072
Nails	15	47.5	P = 0.001
Ankle	5	10	P = 0.433
Heel	0	2.5	P = 0.400
Toes	11.7	42.5	P = 0.001

Table 3

Body Parts	% Correct in Arabic (group I)	% Correct in Arabic (group II)	P Value	Norm Age
Head	78.3	27.5	P < 0.000	2-6
Eye	98.3	100	P = 1.000	2
Nose	95	97.5	P = 0.648	2
Tongue	86.7	97.5	P = 0.081	NA
Hand	98.3	82.5	P = 0.006	NA
Shoulder	41.7	95	P < 0.000	5-6
Chest	18.3	47.5	P = 0.003	3-6
Elbow	25	60	P = 0.001	5-6
Hip	0	22.5	P < 0.000	5-6
Stomach	90	90	P = 1.000	3-6
Leg	91.7	80	P = 0.129	2-6
Knee	21.7	77.5	P < 0.000	3-6
Foot	58.3	70	P = 0.292	2-6
Jaw	5	27.5	P = 0.002	5-6
Forehead	5	37.5	P < 0.000	NA
Ears	100	100	P = 1	2-6
Lips	45	70	P < 0.000	NA
Teeth	96.7	100	P = 0.515	NA
Chin	40	80	P < 0.000	3-6
Neck	70	90	P = 0.025	2-6
Waist	31.2	52.5	P = 0.060	6-6
Wrist	0	2.5	P = 0.400	5-6
Thumb	3.3	25	P = 0.003	2-6
Fingers	65	85	P = 0.038	2-6
Nails	61.2	90	P = 0.002	4-6
Ankle	1.7	12.5	P = 0.036	4-6
Heel	1.7	30	P < 0.000	4-6
Toes	6.7	25	P = 0.016	2-6

Group I Students vs. Brigance Guidelines

The following is a comparison between group one (KG II, grades 1 and 2) students (mean age: $6-6 \pm 0-11$ years) in Arabic and American students in English in reference to the guidelines of the Brigance test:

Head: 78.3% of students answered correctly whereas the norm age of identifying the head among American students is 2-6 years.

Eye: 98.3% of students answered correctly whereas the norm age of identifying the eye among American students is 2 years.

Nose: 95% of students answered correctly whereas the norm age of identifying the nose among American students is 2 years.

Shoulder: 41.7% of students answered correctly whereas the norm age of identifying the shoulder among American students is 5-6 years.

Chest: 18.3% of students answered correctly whereas the norm age of identifying the chest among American students is 3-6 years.

Elbow: 25% of students answered correctly whereas the norm age of identifying the elbow among American students is 5-6 years.

Hip: 0% of students answered correctly whereas the norm age of identifying the hip among American students is 5-6 years.

Stomach: 90% of students answered correctly whereas the norm age of identifying the stomach among American students is 3-6 years.

Leg: 91.7% of students answered correctly whereas the norm age of identifying the leg among American students is 2-6 years.

Knee: 21.7% of students answered correctly whereas the norm age of identifying the knee among American students is 3-6 years.

Foot: 58.3% of students answered correctly whereas the norm age of identifying the foot among American students is 2-6 years.

Jaw: 5% of students answered correctly whereas the norm age of identifying the jaw among American students is 5-6 years.

Ears: 100% of students answered correctly whereas the norm age of identifying the ears among American students is 2-6 years.

Chin: 40% of students answered correctly whereas the norm age of identifying the chin among American students is 3-6 years.

Neck: 70% of students answered correctly whereas the norm age of identifying the neck among American students is 2-6 years.

Waist: 31.2% of students answered correctly whereas the norm age of identifying the waist among American students is 6-6 years.

Wrist: 0% of students answered correctly whereas the norm age of identifying the wrist among American students is 5-6 years.

Thumb: 3.3% of students answered correctly whereas the norm age of identifying the thumb among American students is 2-6 years.

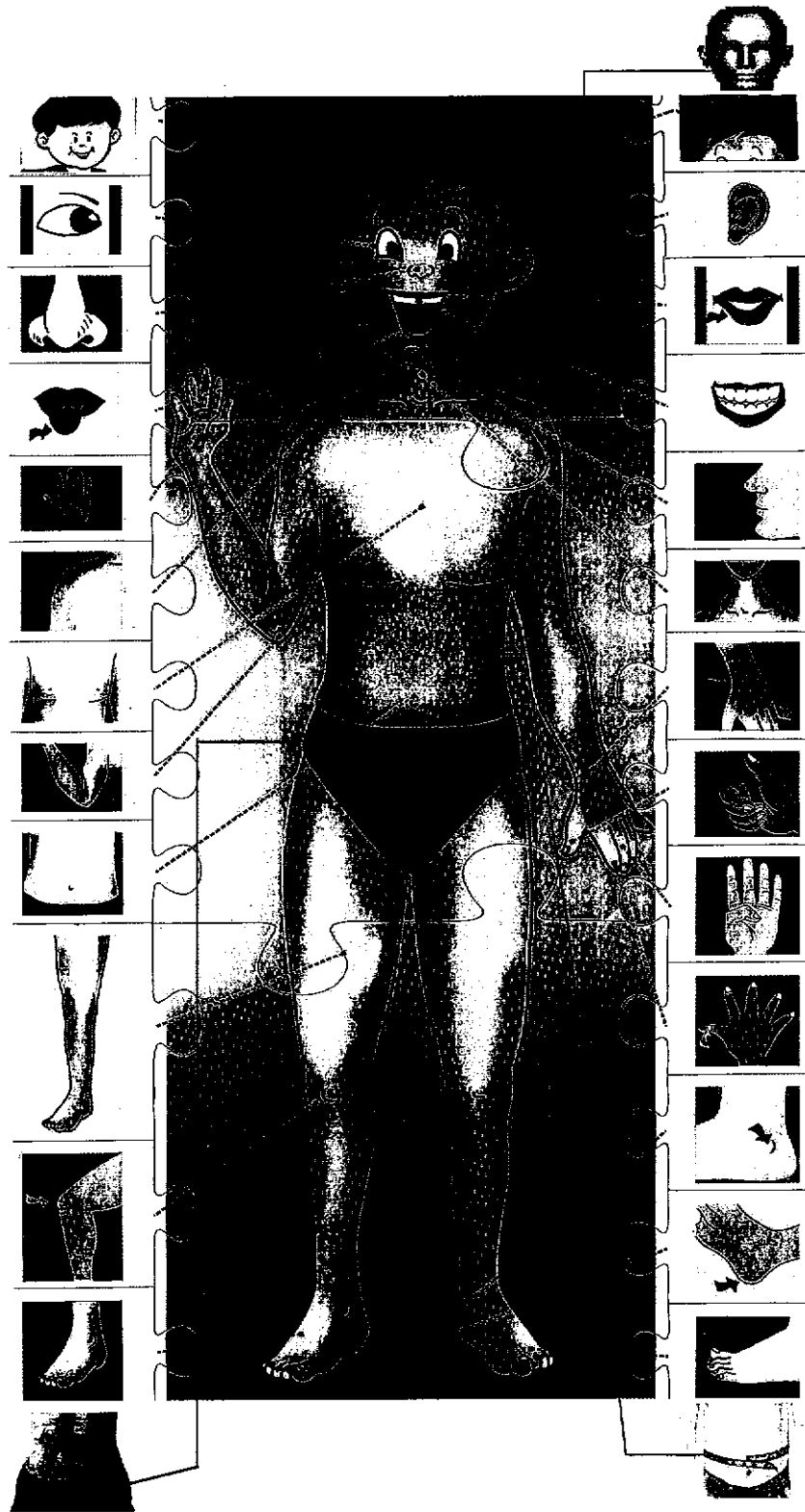
Fingers: 65% of students answered correctly whereas the norm age of identifying the fingers among American students is 2-6 years.

Nails: 61.2% of students answered correctly whereas the norm age of identifying the nails among American students is 4-6 years.

Ankle: 1.7% of students answered correctly whereas the norm age of identifying the ankle among American students is 4-6 years.

Heel: 1.7% of students answered correctly whereas the norm age of identifying the heel among American students is 4-6 years.

Toes: 6.7% of students answered correctly whereas the norm age of identifying the toes among American students is 2-6 years.



Body Parts Words

English	Arabic
1. Head	رأس
2. Eye	عين
3. Nose	أنف
4. Tongue	لسان
5. Hand	يد
6. Shoulder	كتف
7. Chest	صدر
8. Elbow	كوع أو عرق
9. Hip	ورك
10. Stomach	معدة
11. Leg	ساق أو رجل
12. Knee	ركبة
13. Foot	قدم
14. Jaw	فك أو فك
15. Forehead	جبين
16. Ear	أذن
17. Lips	شفاه
18. Teeth	أسنان
19. Chin	ذقن
20. Neck	رقبة
21. Waist	خصر
22. Wrist	المعصم أو كبرها
23. Thumb	إصبع
24. Fingers	أصابع
25. Nails	أظفار
26. Ankle	كاحل
27. Heel	خمسة أو المقبض
28. Toe	أصبع القدم

رقم المشترك 61

أعزائي الأهالي،

تحية وبعد،

هذه دراسة عن تأثير الفصحى والعامية على اكتساب المفردات ومدى قدرة الطلاب في استيعاب مفرداتها . سوف تعطيك فرصة للاشتراك بسحب لجانزة قيمة.

ستجدون في الصفحة التالية مجموعة أسئلة تسلط الضوء على اللهجتين العربيتين (العامية والفصحى) ومختلف الطرق التي تستعملونها لتعليم اولادكم المفردات الأساسية.

الهدف من هذه الاسئلة هو معرفة ما اذا كان أسلوكم يساعد اولادكم على اكتساب المفردات. الأجوبة على هذه الأسئلة تخضع للسرية التامة، فأنتم لستم بحاجة الى ذكر الأسماء وجميع الأجوبة سوف تستخدم فقط من أجل هذا البحث.

ان كل جملة من الجمل في الصفحة الثانية لها خمس احتمالات للاجابة. الرجاء اختيار المربع الذي يعبر عن جوابكم ووضع علامة (√).

شاكرة لكم حسن تعاونكم ومشاركتكم لي في هذه الدراسة.

ملاحظة: الأرقام المبينة أعلاه سوف يتم اختيار احدها لحصوله على هدية قيمة وذلك نهار الثلاثاء الواقع ٢٣/٠٢/٢٠١٠ / أضف الى ما ذكر سوف تجدون ظرفاً صغيراً مرفق مع الأوراق، الرجاء كتب الاسم ورقم الهاتف على الورقة البيضاء واغلقها جيداً وذلك للتعرف فقط على صاحب الرقم الذي سوف يربح معنا.

أوافق أوافق بشدة حيادي لا أوافق لا أوافق أبداً

يعرف ولدي المفردات التالية التابعة لأعضاء الجسم:

فك

ابهام

معصم

كاحل

ركبة

كوع

ورك

خصر

هذه الكلمات صعبة الفهم على أطفالنا حتى الصف الثاني أساسي.

عندما أدرس ولدي المفردات (مثال: ذرة، عرنوس، كرة) استخدم صوراً من الكتب.

يفضل ولدي استعمال اللغة العربية للتعبير عن بعض المفردات كأعضاء الجسم وغيرها.

يفضل ولدي استعمال اللغة الإنجليزية للتعبير عن بعض المفردات كأعضاء الجسم وغيرها.

أوافق أوافق بشدة حيادي لا أوافق لا أوافق أبداً

- عندما أقرأ لولدي، اضطر أحياناً "لترجمة" بعض الكلمات الى العامية.

- يفضل اولادي اللغة العربية على اللغة الانجليزية.

- أفضل تعليم ولدي اللغة العربية الفصحى بدءاً من صفوف الحضانة لأنه بذلك يحسن مفرداته في اللغة العربية عندما يصل الى المرحلة الابتدائية.

- أستعمل الألعاب من اجل تعليم اولادي المفردات في اللغة العربية.

- الأطفال الأميركيين من عمر أولادي يعرفون مفردات مثل ورك، فك، خصر وغيرها...

Interview with KG II Teacher

Question 1:

What strategies do you use to teach the students the different vocabulary words?

Answer 1:

The first strategy is through the use of picture cards because it allows the child to visualize the word as a lot of students do not know how to write the different vocabulary words. Furthermore, the use of pictures is very important to the students since it allows students to memorize the different vocabulary words. For example, the word ball or *tabah* by seeing the picture and how it is written it allows the student to know that this word refers to this picture (ball or tabah). Also the use of educational games helps in teaching the students the different vocabulary words. For example, they are learning a word of three letters. First they see the picture with its corresponding vocabulary word on the board and in front of them they have different cards with each card containing a letter of the word and they need to arrange the cards in the right order to resemble the word written on the board.

Question 2:

Are the following strategies that you mentioned based on interactive learning? How?

Answer 2:

Yes, the strategies are based a lot on interactive learning. This is done through the use of colors, pictures and being friendly with the students by laughing and playing with them.

Question 3:

When the students are studying the words what strategies do they prefer to use?

Answer 3:

Mainly the strategy that they prefer to use is educational games but I do not only use this strategy with them so they will not be focused on one way of learning. This also depends on the difficulty of each word. For some words I do not use games because it is not necessary for them to know what they mean. For example, the word *tabah* I first asked them what does the word *tabah* mean. They started to give answers such as it means a basketball or football. I told them that this is not what the word means, *tabah* means correct and they directly grasped the word. So, if a word is easy then they will directly grasp it without needing to use pictures and games.

Question 4:

What dialect of Arabic (colloquial or standard) do you usually use to explain the different vocabulary words? And why?

Answer 4:

I usually use colloquial Arabic to explain the different vocabulary words. It is easier for the children to understand colloquial Arabic because they are used to hearing it than to understand standard Arabic.

Question 5:

Which dialect of Arabic (colloquial or standard) do the students feel more comfortable to use when learning the names of the different body parts? And why do you think they are more comfortable using this dialect instead of the other?

Answer 5:

They prefer to use colloquial Arabic and not standard Arabic because it is easier for them. Sometimes I ask them a question using standard Arabic and they do not understand. Then

I am obliged to explain it to them using colloquial Arabic. Also they do not use standard Arabic as they do not hear it spoken at home nor with friends unless if a parent is a teacher and in specific an Arabic teacher since he or she might speak with the children in standard Arabic or help their children in this respect.

Question 6:

How are the different picture vocabulary words incorporated into the curriculum? And how much emphasis is put on them when teaching?

Answer 6:

Through the use of letters, for example the letter /ا/, words ending with the letter /ا/ or words beginning with the letter /ا/ which possess a meaning and also through the use of pictures. Pictures are presented with the vocabulary words under them. Mostly the emphasis on the different vocabulary words is during reading. Mainly when reading a text all the emphasis is on vocabulary and also when doing exercises related to reading of the text. During reading there is about 80% emphasis on vocabulary words.

Question 7:

Do the students enjoy learning the different vocabulary words that are related to different body parts? If yes what techniques and strategies do you use to make them enjoy learning the words?

Answer 7:

They did not take all the names relating to different body parts we rarely came across them. In this grade the students know the following words related to body parts: heart or kalib, eye or 3een, mouth or fam, hair or shaa3r, hand or yad, and leg or rihgil. These body parts are easy for them to grasp so they did not find any difficulty because this is

something they are always encountering. For example, when I asked them to tell me a word that starts with the letter /ع/ they directly answered eye or /عين/. The first thing that came to their mind is a word related to body parts. They enjoy learning the words related to different body parts by seeing them through the use of pictures or toys related to body parts such as a toy heart. They hold these toys and they start discovering them, children like this a lot.

Question 8:

What are the different resources that you use to teach the students vocabulary?

Answer 8:

The use of toys as said before, using their drawing books to draw, I also let them use the black board and not only relying on books and copybooks. Other resources are the use of picture cards and small books. Each small book is about a letter and it helps the student see how the letter looks at the beginning, middle, and end of the sentence. In addition, it has different pronunciation depending on its place in the word for example, صوت طويل or long sound and صوت قصير or short sound.

Question 9:

Is picture vocabulary acquisition the same or different in relation to both dialects of Arabic? And why?

Answer 9:

Picture vocabulary words are the same in both dialects of Arabic if there is not a word present under the picture. If they see the picture of the word then it is the same in both dialects and it is not until they are able to read the words in written form to be able to differentiate between the dialects. A picture is a picture in either dialect. When the word

is written what changes between the two dialects is only the pronunciation of the words for example the word heart or qalib. If it is written in standard Arabic then it is pronounced qalib but if written in colloquial Arabic then it is pronounced alib. I took part in a workshop and they taught us that when you talk to the children in standard Arabic the teacher should not stick to standard Arabic whenever a teacher says a sentence in standard Arabic she or he needs to repeat the same sentence in colloquial Arabic. This is done because the children do not understand standard Arabic and in such a way they will gradually understand it. Also, childrens' concentration in this age is very slow because their development is slow. For example, if there is a sentence: الى اين ذهب هذا الولد: it is written الى المدرسة out of 20 students only six will answer this is because the rest of the students do not understand standard Arabic.

Question 10:

Do you think the emergence of educated spoken Arabic or middle Arabic may be a solution to the problem of diglossia and in turn strengthen vocabulary acquisition of the students?

Answer 10:

Yes, because you can not stay talking with them either colloquial Arabic or standard Arabic. You need to talk to them in a dialogue which is between the two. This gives them a base and helps them later on in higher grades.

Question 11:

In comparison with the American students, do you think that our students are at an acceptable level in identifying different picture vocabulary words?

Answer 11:

The English language is easier than the Arabic language since it does not include the complicated grammar as Arabic. It is easier for the students to talk or express themselves in English than in Arabic. For this reason the American students are better than our students when it comes to knowing the different picture vocabulary words.

Question 12:

Do you think that the use of either dialect of Arabic when teaching the students the different vocabulary words makes a difference? Is it better to stick to one dialect of Arabic? And why?

Answer 12:

Yes, there is a difference when using either dialect in teaching the children. They understand colloquial Arabic fast while they need more time to understand standard Arabic. I need to 'translate' the words or sentences from standard Arabic to colloquial Arabic so both dialects are used. For example, when you ask them in standard Arabic where did the child go or الى اين ذهب هذا الولد you need to also use colloquial Arabic and ask them لوين راح هيدا الولد. No you cannot stick to one dialect always. It is known that standard Arabic is the main dialect of Arabic, but even now in the higher grades this concept does not possess a lot of emphasis, you need to use both in order for them to understand standard Arabic. Standard Arabic is important for writing to be able to build sentences and not only for oral conversations. We need to use both dialects standard and colloquial in order for them to learn the standard dialect.

Interview with Grade One Teacher

Question 1:

What strategies do you use to teach the students the different vocabulary words?

Answer 1:

There are different ways through which I teach picture vocabulary words. To start with, I get to class the different picture vocabulary words that we will study. For example, when studying the word ball or /طاببة/ I get to class an actual ball and I let the students pass it on to each other. Then we start describing what we did with the ball in a sentence such as I gave the ball to my friend or I played with the ball (اعطيت الطاببة لرفيقي او لعبت بالطاببة).

Second, if there is a vocabulary word that is difficult or we can not bring it to class then I put its picture. Third, I can let them see a movie to explain a certain vocabulary word.

Fourth, I can show them vocabulary words using the over head projector. Then we write it on the board and the students then write it on their copybooks and I sometimes let the students act out the different vocabulary words. Also they may work with their hands for example, we studied the word house or بيت and for them to understand better what does the word mean, we drew a house on a piece of cardboard and then they had to cut it out and stick it on their copybook. When we come across words related to different body parts, I let the students point to it on their bodies and we also refer to it through the use of pictures and acting. For example, the students can act to each other what they saw with their eyes or heard with their ears. Finally, I sometimes use games to teach the students the vocabulary words. As you can see there are many things we can do to teach the students different vocabulary words.

Question 2:

Are the following strategies that you mentioned based on interactive learning? How?

Answer 2:

Yes, because they work in pairs, or as small groups, sometimes we work together (teacher and student), and sometimes an outside speaker may come so this is all based on cooperation.

Question 3:

When the students are studying the words what strategies do they prefer to use?

Answer 3:

The students like to use their hands such as drawing, cutting, and coloring and I read that drawing helps students to concentrate. They also like when I write on the board with colored chalk, for example red, they choose the color they want. I emphasize the vocabulary word by writing it with the color they choose. They also like to see big colorful pictures of words. For example, when we were studying about animals, each student got a toy animal with him or her to school and we constructed a zoo in one of the corners of the class. We then put fence to the zoo. Then we divided the zoo into two parts which are animals that are wild (برية) and animals that are tamed (اليفة). This was done to let the students understand the meaning of fierce and tamed animals. The students also like to get things with them from home and they also like to work with their hands. Another subject that we were studying was fruits. Everyone got with him or her an apple to class because 'an apple a day keeps the doctor away' so I was encouraging them to like apples because a lot of students in my grade do not like apples. Our lesson was about the importance of fruits. Such as fruits provide us with vitamins and apples clean our teeth.

Another subject was our teeth. All the students got a toothbrush and toothpaste to class because there are a lot of children that do not brush their teeth at all and this was the first time that their mother bought them a toothbrush and toothpaste in first grade. They did an activity everyone had to go and brush their teeth. They took a small water bottle with them to rinse the toothpaste from their mouth after brushing their teeth. In such a way, the students understood exactly what we mean by toothbrush and not a hair brush for example.

Question 4:

What dialect of Arabic (colloquial or standard) do you usually use to explain the different vocabulary words? And why?

Answer 4:

First I read the sentence in standard Arabic but then I explain in colloquial Arabic because standard Arabic is strange for grade one children. I do not think that they like it as they do not like the teacher that speaks standard Arabic. They sometimes say words in English because they claim that they do not know the word or sentence in Arabic so if I speak standard Arabic then they will sit quietly without speaking. But when I speak in colloquial Arabic, they participate and answer back. When I finish explaining and repeating the lesson, then I ask a question in standard Arabic and then they answer back in standard Arabic. If I stay talking and explaining in standard Arabic this would be confusing. Added to that, we are living in a culture that speaks colloquial Arabic and not standard Arabic. Sometimes I repeat the explanation in standard Arabic. In such a case the children who did not understand in standard Arabic already understood in colloquial and some children may have understood in both dialects.

Question 5:

What dialect (standard or colloquial) do the students feel more comfortable to use when learning the names of different body parts? And why do you think that they are more comfortable using this dialect instead of the other?

Answer 5:

The students feel more comfortable when using the colloquial dialect because they use it at home with their mothers, when they play with their friends, and in the community. Some words are the same in both dialects for example, eye (عين), ear (اذن), and hand (يد). Of course they prefer colloquial Arabic but I repeat again in standard Arabic in such a way both dialects will be familiar to them. For them standard Arabic is only for studying.

Question 6:

How are the different picture vocabulary words incorporated into the curriculum? And how much emphasis is put on them while teaching?

Answer 6:

Vocabulary words are introduced through reading stories. I write the vocabulary words on the board. Another way they are introduced is through listening to tapes, the students listen to a passage and then I stop it and repeat after it. Then I ask them questions and we write the words on the board in such a way they will understand it completely they feel as if they are listening to something on television. I also use audio visuals. Concentration on vocabulary words is through repetition of the words and we also write poems using the vocabulary words and through exercises on these vocabulary words. For example, fill in the blank with the correct vocabulary word or pick one vocabulary word and circle it or

put the following vocabulary words in a sentence. Approximately there is around 50% emphasis on vocabulary words.

Question 7:

Do the children enjoy learning the different vocabulary words that are related to different body parts? If yes please explain what techniques and strategies do you use to make them enjoy learning the words?

Answer 7:

I try using a lot of techniques to let them like it because they do not like to study. The strategies that I use are pointing, acting, and use of stories in addition to the strategies that were mentioned before such as showing pictures and using chalk.

Question 8:

What are the different resources that you use to teach the students vocabulary?

Answer 8:

When I teach the students vocabulary I relate the lesson to other curriculum areas such as science, geography, English, and math. Some resources used are play dough, for example to make animals, and mainly things used at home that they can get to school. For example, when studying the word telephone or هاتف they got with them from home plastic cups and thread and we attached two plastic cups together using the thread to make a telephone. Students started using it by listening to what their friends are saying.

Question 9:

Is picture vocabulary acquisition the same or different in relation to both dialects of Arabic? Can you please explain the similarity or difference?

Answer 9:

Both dialects are very close together they are not far apart so picture vocabulary acquisition is the same. When the vocabulary words are put in sentences they become familiar to us. The word is repeated sometimes in standard Arabic and other times in colloquial Arabic it depends how difficult the word is. When I use the vocabulary words in standard Arabic I am also considering the grammar of the language. For example, ball or *طابطة* is singular (*مفرد*) I show them one finger and *مثنى* is *طابتان* and I show them two fingers and three balls is plural or *جمع*. While in spoken Arabic, there is no grammar as it is only a dialect that is spoken and not written. Standard Arabic is the dialect that is written so it is only in standard Arabic that we need to take into consideration its grammar. While colloquial Arabic is used to help the students because they are used to it.

Question 10:

Do you think that the emergence of educated spoken Arabic or middle Arabic may be a solution to the problem of diglossia and in turn strengthen vocabulary acquisition of the students?

Answer 10:

Yes, the use of the middle Arabic may benefit the students later on. In grade one we are using both dialects so you can say that we are using something similar to middle Arabic. Even though I prefer colloquial Arabic but I am obliged to use both dialects.

Question 11:

In comparison with the American students, do you think that our students are at an acceptable level in identifying different picture vocabulary words?

Answer 11:

American students have one language. Colloquial English is very similar to standard English where as in Arabic there is a big difference between the two. I think that our students are at the same level in identifying picture vocabulary as the American students even though our language is harder and even our colloquial language is more difficult.

Question 12:

Do you think that the use of either dialect of Arabic when teaching the students the different vocabulary words makes a difference? Is it better to stick to one dialect of Arabic? And why?

Answer 12:

Everything is written in standard Arabic. All the sentences and the exercises everything is in standard Arabic. The students can not write sentences in colloquial Arabic. Colloquial Arabic is used to help the students to understand standard Arabic. Literature says we have to teach in standard Arabic but I do not like this. This is because if I only use standard Arabic I feel there is a gap between me and the student and I want to be close to the student because they are young. From half of the year onwards I start using standard Arabic more because by now they will better understand the standard dialect. So, there is no difference when I use either dialect to teach vocabulary words because I am mixing both dialects together.

Interview with Grade Two Teacher

Question 1:

What strategies do you use to teach the students the different vocabulary words?

Answer 1:

The first strategy is reading. I ask them what are the new words that you read and we start from these words by writing them on the board. Some students may know certain vocabulary words and other may not so the students that know some words will explain them to their friends and give examples. I also let the students act the words, or draw them, or we can look at pictures. I sometimes translate it to English I know this may not be permitted but I try all the ways that let the students understand. For example, when doing spelling, they have a story and when you turn the page there is a picture that explains this story. For example, new words were encountered which are bull and plow (الثور والمحراف); they saw the picture of the words in order to understand what it means.

Question 2:

Are the following strategies that you mentioned based on interactive learning? How?

Answer 2:

Yes, definitely the strategies are based on interactive learning. I ask the students if they have an idea on how to act a certain word out or how to draw it if someone knows then they start but if nobody knows I start showing them and then they follow. All the students work together.

Question 3:

When the students are studying the words what strategies do they prefer to use?

Answer 3:

I do not see that they have a specific way that they like to study the words. Usually young students like to do what the teacher tells them to do. What we do is we read the vocabulary words out loud a number of times I think in such a way the student can grasp the word better. We also write the words on the board because it is very important to write the words on the board. The students love to write on the board and I allow them to do so. I allow them because in such a way I can monitor their handwriting and see if they are writing the words correctly also in such a way they learn from each others mistakes and they like it.

Question 4:

What dialect of Arabic (colloquial or standard) do you usually use to explain the different vocabulary words? And why?

Answer 4:

I start explaining the words using colloquial Arabic because they enter grade two with a weak base and then I use standard Arabic. Our students are weak in standard Arabic because previous teachers are not using standard Arabic. It is a tough and dry language so I usually use it in class with a musical tone so the students will like it. I use both dialects colloquial and standard Arabic. One parent came up to me once and told me that my daughter now loves standard Arabic.

Question 5:

What dialect (standard or colloquial) do the students feel more comfortable to use when learning the names of different body parts? And why do you think that they are more comfortable using this dialect instead of the other?

Answer 5:

The children prefer to use standard Arabic when learning the names of different body parts because if they say the names in colloquial Arabic they become shy. For example, instead of saying nose or منخار they say منخور and they start laughing. When using standard Arabic, the students feel it is more formal and more proper to be used than colloquial Arabic.

Question 6:

How are the different picture vocabulary words incorporated into the curriculum? And how much emphasis is put on them while teaching?

Answer 6:

Vocabulary words are introduced through the use of pictures to remind the students of past vocabulary words they might remember and also through the use of their exercise books. Also through writing sentences sometimes the sentence is given but it is mixed up and they need to put it in the right order or they need to provide a new sentence for a certain vocabulary word. In every lesson I pick the new words to teach the students. For example, we had a lesson and the following new words came up which are smart (الزكي) and loyal (الوفى). The main emphasis is through the use of the Arabic exercise book (كتاب التطبيق). I tell them that your mind is like a container and we need to store the vocabulary words in it. When teaching reading there is approximately around 70% emphasis on the new vocabulary words.

Question 7:

Do the children enjoy learning the different vocabulary words that are related to different body parts? If yes please explain what techniques and strategies do you use to make them enjoy learning the words?

Answer 7:

Yes, the children enjoy learning different vocabulary words that are related to body parts. The different methods used are the following: I pick a student to stand in front of the class and the class starts referring to his/her body parts. They also draw different body parts on the board, and through the use of their exercise book they identify the parts and write its name under it.

Question 8:

What are the different resources that you use to teach the students vocabulary?

Answer 8:

Mainly the resources I use are pictures and photocopies of exercises (اوراق مطبوعة). I have a book that is filled with pictures and exercises that I photocopy for the students and we use them in class. Also we use the board because the students love to write on the board.

Question 9:

Is picture vocabulary acquisition the same or different in relation to both dialects of Arabic? Can you please explain the similarity or difference?

Answer 9:

It is mainly the same in relation to both dialects of Arabic but there is only a small difference between the two about 20%. There are some words that are used in standard Arabic that can not be used in colloquial Arabic for example the word يثرثر we can not

use it in colloquial Arabic instead we say ياروش. Also there are sayings that are completely different such as مات in colloquial Arabic becomes توفي in standard Arabic. It also depends on the culture of each student or from what region in Lebanon does the student comes from. Words may change from region to region.

Question 10:

Do you think that the emergence of educated spoken Arabic or middle Arabic may be a solution to the problem of diglossia and in turn strengthen vocabulary acquisition of the students?

Answer 10:

This might be a solution to the problem but I am not knowledgeable about this topic or about middle Arabic.

Question 11:

In comparison with the American students, do you think that our students are at an acceptable level in identifying different picture vocabulary words?

Answer 11:

Our students are weaker in comparison to the American students in identifying different picture vocabulary words. First, because there is no proper collaboration between teachers we are not working all together as one hand. Second, the English language is easier and spoken and written English are the same while spoken Arabic and written Arabic are different. Third, the role of parents is very important. Parents need to read with their children at home on a regular basis so the child can get familiar with the use of standard Arabic.

Question 12:

Do you think that the use of either dialect of Arabic when teaching the students the different vocabulary words makes a difference? Is it better to stick to one dialect of Arabic? And why?

Answer 12:

It is better to use both dialects and not only one dialect of Arabic. Standard Arabic is not common to the students as they are not used to hearing it if I stay talking to them in standard Arabic they will not understand. You need to let the idea to be close to the students and to their understanding. I use colloquial Arabic only when explaining so it is easier for the students to understand. Other than that I mainly use standard Arabic with the students. So, there is no difference in using either dialect only when explaining the vocabulary words to the students but when we come to writing or to applying what we studied I mainly use standard Arabic.