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IN SEARCH OF EFFECTIVE SECOND LANGUAGE ARABIC VOCABULARY TEACHING STRATEGIES: THEORY AND IMPLEMENTATION

by

Asmaa Yazidi Alaoui

A portfolio submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the degree

of

MASTER OF SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING

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UTAH STATE UNIVERSITY

Logan, Utah

2023

Copyright © Asmaa Yazidi Alaoui All rights reserved **ABSTRACT**

IN SEARCH OF EFFECTIVE SECOND LANGUAGE ARABIC VOCABULARY TEACHING

STRATEGIES: THEORY AND IMPLEMENTATION

By

Asmaa Yazidi Alaoui: Master of Second Language Teaching

Utah State University, 2023

Major professor: Dr. Sarah O'Neill

Department: Word Languages & Cultures

This portfolio is the outcome of the author's studies in the Masters of Second Language

Teaching (MSLT) program at Utah State University (USU) as well as her experience as a

graduate instructor of Arabic at the same university.

This work has two main parts. The first comprises the three major components that present

the author's perspectives as a teacher, such as professional environment, teaching philosophy

statement and the teaching observation.

The second part demonstrated the author's research interest that aligned with her teaching

perspective as an Arabic teacher. It was a position paper that called for Arabic vocabulary

teaching strategies that respect the morphology and orthography of that language. She also

argued that the existing vocabulary teaching strategies that were borrowed from European

languages may not be adequate for all languages.

(57 pages)

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DEDICATION

In memory of my father

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I first want to thank God for giving me the strength to accomplish this degree.

It is with gratitude to my committee, Dr. Arshavskaya, Yurika Izumi, and my chair, for their expertise. Dr. O'Neill has been there for me since day one, Thanks to her support and guidance I was able to finish this work.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ACTFL: American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

MSLT: Master of Second Language Teaching

PACE: Present, Attention, Co-construct, Extension

SL: Second Language

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

TA: Teacher Assistant

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INTRODUCTION

This portfolio is a collection of the theoretical and practical frameworks that I have acquired over the past two years. Since I enrolled in the Master of Second Language Teaching program in Utah State University, my vision of teaching and the practices and theories that go along with it have been drastically shaped, refined, and revitalized.

I grew up in a multilingual environment, where the language spoken in my household (a Moroccan dialect) was different from the one spoken outside (Tamazight), and different from the ones learnt in school (Standard Arabic and French). Growing up I thought that was the case for everyone. I never thought of the way I learnt these languages. The first time I learnt that this was something unique was when I started my undergraduate studies majoring in languages and Pedagogy. My understanding and love for languages has grown, and I decided to upgrade teaching from a hobby that I am passionate about to a career that I want to spend my whole life doing.

Throughout the years I accumulated a few valuable teaching experiences. However, doing my master's degree and having the chance to teach Arabic 1010, as well as observing other incredible colleagues and classmates has been a very fruitful learning journey.

During the MSLT program I deepened my learning practices by having the chance to understand the most important and recent theories in the field of second languages. In addition, I had the chance to put into practice what I learnt, discuss it with colleagues, and get feedback on how to make my practices better or more effective. On this learning journey I had the chance to explore for the first time topics related to second language acquisition such as pragmatics and how culture and inclusion are strongly connected to how language is used day-to-day.

This portfolio contains my teaching philosophy which displays the most important characteristics of a good teacher as well as some of the practices and designs which I believe any good, inspiring teacher should implement in their classroom. These aspects are: Story-based grammar teaching, learner-centered education, the communicative approach and corrective feedback. The second component of my portfolio is a classroom observation where I described, reflected and evaluated the practices of a colleague that teaches a different language than mine, and give my overall feedback on the lesson sequences and interaction. The third component is my main paper, a position paper where I call for Arabic vocabulary teaching strategies that respect the specificities of this language and criticizes the approach of one-size-fits-all pedagogy used by many in the field. I argue that the existing vocabulary language strategies that work for European languages do not adequately work for teaching Chinese, Arabic or Hebrew.

Finally, my closing piece describes my future goals and plans for my development as an Arabic teacher who is striving to make the Arabic learning journey as fun and beneficial as it can be.

TEACHING PHILOSOPHY

Professional Environment

I have always been passionate about teaching and languages. In the last 8 years, I taught Arabic and English as a foreign language. I had English learners who were beginners and intermediate, their age range was 5- 14. In addition to that, I taught Arabic to adult speakers of other languages such as English and Chinese.

After finishing my master's degree, I envision myself teaching Arabic in a university in a non-Arabic speaking county. There is an increasing demand for well-trained and experienced Arabic educators in the field, especially in Europe, Asia, and North America.

I am eager to teach not only Arabic language but culture as well. I want to challenge my students' stereotypes about the Arab word. In addition, I enjoy helping them develop their critical thinking ability and see things from different angles.

Teaching Philosophy Statement

I believe that the main role of a teacher is to facilitate and guide the learning process by shifting the central focus in the classroom from the teacher to the student. By doing this, I can maintain a safe environment where students have the opportunity to negotiate meaning and exchange knowledge, which according to Fitria (2021) maximizes the chances to learn the target language regardless of the learners' levels.

Story-Based Grammar Teaching

The story-based approach (Adair-Hauck & Donato, 2016) for teaching grammar is an innovative, collaborative theory of teaching grammar effectively. This approach uses stories to teach forms in relation to meaning. The primary focus in the classroom is not on the fine points of grammar but on the meaning of the story as a whole. "Once learners understand the meaning of

the whole text, they will be better able to focus on and understand the contribution of the parts of the text to the meaning of the whole" (Shrum & Glisan, 2010, p. 221). Grammar structures constitute the "parts" of the "whole," which in the Story-based grammar approach is a particular text. The teacher leads the class and makes sure to engage students and walk them through the rule using the PACE model. First, the teacher *Presents* a story text, then draws the *Attention* of students to a target rule of grammar. Students and the teacher work together to *Co-construct* the rule in relation to the meaning of the story. Finally, the *Extension* is applying the knowledge gained in a different context. As Adair-Hauck & Donato put it, "A story-based approach invites the learner to comprehend and experience the functions and purposes of language through integrated discourse in the form of a story guided participatory approach and invites the learner to comprehend and experience the functions and purposes of language through integrated discourse in the form of a story" (2016, p. 270). According to Malia (2021) this method is a valid alternative approach to teaching grammar. Moreover, it creates positive connections between students and encourages them to speak spontaneously using the target language.

I view the PACE model (explained in Adair-Hauck & Donato, 2016) as an effective method for teaching grammar via stories. I use it in my classes and adapt it to whatever level I am teaching, whether novice, intermediate, or advanced.

Learner-Centered Education

Recent methods of teaching have shifted the focus from teacher-centered approaches that emphasize grammar and drills, to learner-centered approaches that emphasize learning strategies and communicative competence, in which teacher and learners build the lesson together. Lee and VanPatten (2003) describe how the roles of teachers as well as students have been changed in the communicative classroom, as instruction has become more student-centered and focused on

communication. According to Freire (2018), the role of a teacher is "to organize a process which already occurs spontaneously" (p.49) during classroom activities, to invite students to share their background knowledge, and help students develop knowledge about the world and daily life. Since I believe that the learner is the center in the teaching-learning experience, I strongly agree with Swain (1985), who talks about the importance of output; learning a language can't occur only by receiving comprehensible input (Krashen, 1982). Learners have to engage and interact in the classroom by producing output in the target language. Furthermore, the interaction that occurs should focus on the meaning rather than on grammar.

In my 1010 (novice level) Arabic class, students listen to a song and see many pictures describing the Aid Al-Fitar (breaking the fast day, which is a religious feast in the Arab world) day rituals, after that, I ask them to work in groups to discuss the picture and the video I shared earlier.

Communicative Approach

In Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), teachers should be the class maestro. That is, they should facilitate and guide the learning process, providing opportunities to communicate in the target language while, on other hand, students engage actively in their learning (Lee & VanPatten, 2003). In order for teachers to maintain their role, they encourage learners to use the target language in pairs or in groups. By doing this, students will be equipped with enough vocabulary and grammar knowledge to relate what they are learning to real life contexts. Moreover, students will be able to continue learning by themselves.

As for my class, as an instructor, I use 20% of the time to give instructions and explanations and devote the other 80% for students to engage with their peers as well as the teacher. This interaction is always for a purpose and includes a well-designed activity such as working on a task,

writing a dialogue, answering questions, or competitions. Students work in groups to maintain the interaction with each other. I walk around to answer their questions and make sure that they are using Arabic.

Corrective Feedback

Making errors is an important phase of learning for every learner. No one has learned everything from their first exposure. Our job as teachers is to draw our students' attention to their mistakes/errors. Mistakes come as a lapse in performance: the student may know a rule but still sometimes may make a mistake. This happens often with English learners in the case of "s" of the third personal singular. Errors, on the other hand, happen due to a lack of competence; that is, students don't know the rule or don't know how to apply it. As a teacher, I know my students, and I am obliged to offer feedback on their performance to help them overcome that.

Ellis (2009) explains that teaching is a form of social mediation. Corrective feedback is one of these forms. According to Ellis (2009), corrective feedback is a complex process, its complexity derived from many issues such as what to correct, how to correct it and when to correct. Harmer states, "feedback encompasses not only correcting students, but also offering them an assessment of how well they have done, whether during a drill or after a longer exercise" (2007, p. 99). As a language teacher, giving feedback on my students' submissions is a constructive phase of their progress. I give both written and oral feedback. For written, I use rubrics as a guide to facilitate going over their lapses. As for oral feedback, I use explicit correction and recasting.

After reading Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study results, my approach to giving feedback has changed to include elicitation as well as metalinguistic feedback. According to the study, the feedback types that allowed for negotiation of form were the four that led to student-generated repair: elicitation (45% of the time), metalinguistic feedback (46%), clarification requests (27%),

and repetition (31%). By using these feedback forms, I am opening up new chances for my students to interact and negotiate the meaning of what I have provided as a suggested correction. Long suggests that the more negotiation of meaning/interaction that takes place between two learners, between learner and teacher, etc., the better the conditions are for L2 acquisition (1996).

For my whole class, I usually give oral feedback on things we had covered before and some rules the students are supposed to know and use. Moreover, I make sure that my student knows the mistake I had corrected by following up with a question such as; do you know how we did this? Why we said this and not this? I also open this question to the whole class to contribute. As a result, students together are negotiating meaning and building up their language skills at the same time.

Conclusion

Writing my teaching philosophy statement and its components stems from my experience as a second language learner. I have always wanted my learning to take place in context, and instead of memorizing French grammar, I wish my teachers had used the story-based grammar teaching approach. Learning a language requires learners to take an active role in the classroom, which is why I believe the focus needs to be shifted from a teacher- centered approach to a learner-centered approach. Learning a language cannot happen with no use of that language, which is why teachers need to adopt the communicative approach to encourage their students to produce the language instead of merely listening to it. I have learned English for more than four years, I still struggle to pronounce some words because I learned them incorrectly. Therefore, I encourage immediate corrective feedback.

As a teacher for more than six years and through my daily interactions with my students, I strongly believe that the story-based grammar approach, student-centered approach,

communicative approach and corrective feedback are salient pillars of my lesson planning and material design.

CLASS OBSERVATION

Context

I had the chance to observe many different language classes (Arabic, English, Chinese, German and Spanish); each was taught using a different approach. I have learned ample new things from my observations, however, one of my favorite ones came from observing a Spanish 1010 class here at Utah State University. It was a class of around 22 learners, and I observed the course in the third week of fall semester 2021. This class met three times a week for 50 minutes. A Teacher Assistant (TA) was present.

The learning objectives of that class were: Practicing a brief introduction dialogue, reviewing the difference between *Esto es* (this is) and *Estos son* (these are) and using them in sentences, the days of the week, and time expressions. The class was well organized and extremely engaging. The teacher used only the target language, clarifying only with gestures and facial expressions, writing on the board and giving examples.

Instructional procedures

The first thing that anyone would notice once they entered the classroom is the fantastic learning atmosphere. As soon as the teacher stepped in, the class was instantly engaged. The first thing the teacher did was greet the students and ask how they were doing in Spanish. It was a nice, quick warm-up for everyone in class. Later, the teacher played a video about Independence Day in many Spanish speaking countries, primarily in Brazil and Chile. There was a part in the video where the crowd was repeating a word, so the teacher encouraged his students to repeat the word 'Viva' as well as the waving gesture in the video; it was an excellent example of engaging students.

The next activity was a group activity, where the teacher gave the students a set of questions they had to answer as well as ask each other. The teacher was walking around answering any questions that arose and giving immediate corrective feedback regarding mistakes such as

pronunciation and the use of subject pronouns. He occasionally provided a more detailed explanation as needed. His purpose was to maintain the use of the target language as well as correct mistakes to avoid any fossilized errors.

The third activity started with two questions on the board: ¿Es esto? (Is this?) ¿Son estos? (Are these?) and asking students to answer these questions by revising the singular and the plural form question and its answer. Each group was given a whiteboard and they held up their answers to each question. The teacher explained that he would show them different items for Marvel heroes. Students needed to answer to whom that item belongs using the expressions Esto es/Estos son (this is / these are). He gave an example: This is for Spiderman. These are for Captain America. One point for each correct answer, two points for the first group that gave the correct answer, and sweets for the overall winners. The teacher started showing different pictures to students and each group answered enthusiastically. The activity lasted 15 minutes.

The fourth activity aimed to revise the days of the week and time expressions. They then practiced two main questions in Spanish: ¿Qué has hecho? (What did you do?) ¿A qué hora? (At what time?). The teacher handed out a sheet with a chart of the weekdays and different time slots (calendar). Students were asked to fill out the paper by walking around asking different classmates the two previous questions and writing down their answers. The time of this activity was 8 minutes. It was not enough for students to finish so he asked them to finish it at home as homework. It will be the first thing they will talk about in the following session.

Evaluation

I was impressed with the teacher's preparations. It was clear that he worked hard on preparing his class, the activities, the sequence of using them, and the transitions. The teacher was

always engaged in the learning process, encouraging everyone to take part in any class activity. The different activities he used allowed him to target the different learning styles of the learners. The immersive learning environment leads to lowering the affective filter of learners, allowing them to use the target language without any feeling of embarrassment when they make mistakes. Learners are then able to produce the language more often and accelerate their progress. One thing that stood out to me was the clear instructions the teacher gave. Beyond that he gave concrete examples of the outcome he was looking for. The class time management was also highly effective not only in the pacing of activities, but how the teacher smoothly transitioned from one to the next.

Reflection

I learned a lot from this classroom observation. The first was how the teacher adopted a learner-centered approach by diversifying the learning activities and keeping the students engaged with him and their peers. Keeping the class using the target language was an excellent method to encourage students to use the target language, even if they were not confident in their abilities. The teacher made sure to walk around, listen to students talking in their groups, and correct their mistakes immediately using explicit correction, which I think is one of the most effective ways to give feedback and make learners aware of their mistakes so that they can avoid them in the future.

However, I do not think I can directly assimilate what the teacher did in his class despite its excellence. This is due to many reasons:

First, Spanish students were able to have a basic conversation using their target language in their 3rd week of their first semester, something that is impossible in Arabic. Arabic learners in their third week know less than half of the Arabic alphabet and sounds. More than this, the Spanish teachers, or Romance language teachers in general, can take advantage of the similar written orthographic (alphabetic) scripts of the target language in relation to English. As well as cognates:

pairs of words across languages that have the same meaning and only a slight change in pronunciation, for instance; independence (English) *independencia* (Spanish) *indépendance* (French). Cognates are prevalent between European language pairings such as English and Spanish. Moreover, in an Arabic class I am always careful to clarify the expressions, or the words used. I select them carefully to avoid any misinterpretations; as you may know Islam and Arabic are very entwined with each other because the religious book of Muslim is written in Classical Arabic.

In conclusion, I have learned many things from the teachers I observed. One of the most salient takeaways is that the learning environment and the teacher-student, student-student interactions make a remarkable difference in student performance. Moreover, a great teacher can adapt whatever teaching strategy with respect to the specificity of the language they teach.

MAIN PAPER

Introduction

Laufer (2003) defines vocabulary as the core of the language, both in terms of learning or usage. He sustains that vocabulary is the basis of any language; without it, users of that language can't communicate or use the language effectively. Thus, it is clear that vocabulary is a fundamental aspect in language learning. Learning a language without learning its words and terms is an unattainable goal. According to Walters (2004), students as well as teachers strongly believe that the acquisition of vocabulary is at the core of teaching and learning languages. Teaching vocabulary is one of the issues that has bred a plethora of literature, theories, methods, and strategies.

As a student in the MSLT program I have learned many things about how to be a good language teacher, the most important being that a teacher must be well equipped with the necessary tools to teach the four skills including reading, writing, speaking and listening. Additionally, I have learned how to teach culture, which is a fundamental aspect of language. Moreover, I have become familiar with the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) standards, different activities to interact with students, how to give constructive feedback in class, how to use stories to teach grammar, and many other useful skills that any twenty-first century teacher must have.

As an Arabic speaker, I have always been fascinated with the beauty of the Arabic language. Arabic has a rich literary history and an extensive vocabulary of over 12 million words. As an Arabic teacher I have always questioned the ways words are taught. I often wonder what the most effective approaches are to teach vocabulary and whether the existing methods work for all types of vocabulary and languages.

It is important to recognize that different languages have unique characteristics that demand different teaching approaches. Arabic is an abjad language, which has crucial implications for the characteristics of its vocabulary and what students must learn to effectively recognize and produce lexical items. Arabic words also have a distinct morphology and orthography, making them challenging to learn for many students, particularly if the lexicon of their native language does not share these characteristics. It is, therefore, necessary to develop effective teaching approaches that are tailored to Arabic.

In my position paper, I argue that the L2 Arabic teaching community needs its own pedagogical approaches to teach vocabulary effectively to L1 English learners of the language. The pre-existing vocabulary approaches used for English as a Second Language and most European languages may not be applicable to Arabic due to its uniqueness.

Since I started my Arabic teaching career, I have used different, eclectic approaches to teach vocabulary. I have followed models of vocabulary-teaching activities that I observed other teachers use, saw in textbooks, or read about in pedagogical texts. However, nearly all of these teaching strategies and activity types were developed for languages other than Arabic. This is because there is a substantial gap in the field of teaching vocabulary in general and Arabic vocabulary in particular.

I chose to work on this topic for many reasons. First is my eagerness to make learning Arabic easier, especially for speakers of other languages who believe that Arabic is a particularly hard language to acquire. We can not only help students learn Arabic vocabulary more effectively and achieve their language learning goals, but we can also provide teachers with effective strategies to teach vocabulary.

What is Vocabulary

According to Schmitt & Schmitt (2000) "word" is too general to encapsulate the various forms vocabulary takes. According to Qian (2002), vocabulary knowledge means students learn the words' deep meaning, including pronunciation, meaning, spelling, frequency, sound structure, syntax, and collocation. Goulden et al. (1990) define two different types of vocabulary: productive vocabulary and receptive vocabulary. Active or productive vocabulary refers to the words that learners can pronounce, spell, and write. It also includes grammar. This is in line with the findings of Aeborsold and Field (1977) who indicate that productive vocabulary refers to the language components that students can use in speaking and writing appropriately. However, it is not sufficient to simply define vocabulary knowledge as knowing or not knowing a word. Rather, it is necessary to understand exactly the ways and contexts in which a student is able to use a word. For example, a learner may be able to recognize a word but not use it in conversation.

Goulden et al. (1990) further divide word knowledge into three areas: knowledge of the form, knowledge of the meaning and knowledge of the use. Each of them is sub-divided: (see Table 1):

- Knowledge of a word form involves knowing what a word looks like; it consists of phonological, morphological, and orthographic forms.
- Knowledge of word meaning is divided into three parts. The first sub-division is form and meaning, it involves forming a link between a foreign language word and its translation.
 The second sub-division is concepts and referents and associations.
- Knowledge of word use is also divided into three parts: grammatical functions, collocations (frequent word combinations), and constraints on use.

Table 1: Word Knowledge Areas

Table 1: Word Knowle	luge Aleas	1	1	
	Spoken		What does the word sound like?	
	1	P	How is the word pronounced?	
Form		R	What does the word look like?	
	Written	P	How is the word written and spelled?	
		R	What parts are recognizable in this word?	
	Word parts	P	What parts are needed to express meaning?	
Meaning		R	What meaning does this word form signal?	
	Form and meaning	P	What word form can be used to express this meaning?	
	Concepts and referents	R	What is included in the concept?	
		Р	What items can the concept refer to?	
		R	What other words does this make us think of?	
	Associations	Р	What other words could we use instead of this one?	
Use		R	In what patterns does the word occur?	
	Grammatical functions	P	In what patterns must we use this word?	
		R	What words or types of words occur with this one?	
	collocations	P	What words or types of words must we use with this one?	

		R	Where, when, and how often would we meet this word?
Constraints on use	P	Where, when and how often can we use this word?	

(Nation, 2013, p. 49)

Note. R= receptive, P=productive

Defining vocabulary is a complex task; it involves many levels of recognition, (form, meaning and use). In order to learn a language's vocabulary, learners need to be able to use the three different levels. However, my focus throughout this paper will be on the form.

Knowledge of the form involves three aspects: spoken, written and word parts. As for Arabic, the spoken part, or knowing how words sound, is one of the greatest early challenges that any second language Arabic learner has regardless of their mother tongue. This is because of the sound systems and the unique letters that Arabic uses. However, once learners know the letters/sounds it is easy for them to put them together and read. So, reading out loud is one of the earliest skills that Arabic language learners may master even without knowing the meaning of the words.

As for the level of written words, as you may know Arabic has an alphabetic system that is read from right to left. It is not enough to know the sounds and letters, but you need to know the position of each letter in every word. This is because each letter has three ways/shapes to be written, whether it is found at the beginning, middle or the end. This may be challenging for students because they think these forms are not the same letter. One other level of complexity for Arabic learners, if their mother tongue is an alphabetic language, is their ability to know where the word starts and where it ends, because in Arabic there is no capitalization, and the writing system is cursive.

Word part recognition is a very tricky level of knowledge because it has to do with meaning. It focuses on the parts that are recognizable in the word, as well as the parts that express meaning. Arabic is a Semitic language that is based on a roots system. This means that most Arabic words are derived from a set of core consonants, which are defined as roots. So, learners can guess the meaning of a word by analyzing and understanding the root. This is not enough by itself, because Arabic has patterns (morphological templates) which are a combination of vowels and consonants that are added to the root to create new words. Arabic has many different patterns; each has a specific meaning and function (see next section).

Knowing a word in Arabic, as was debated by Maskor & Baharudin (2016), is mastery of word meaning in depth and the ability to link it to other words. It also necessitates using it in the context of proper grammar. As for Al-Shuwairekh (2001), he classified vocabulary knowledge in Arabic as knowing the words and patterns of words, learning how to apply their morphology in sentences to form a pattern of different words, identifying the spoken words with the written words and finally pronunciation. All these prove the complexity of word knowledge in general and Arabic word knowledge specifically.

Vocabulary Learning Strategies

To explore the vocabulary teaching strategies used by different teachers across the world, my starting point is to examine the most popular books on this topic within the language teaching field. The two books chosen for analysis were written by well-known scholars in the field. Moreover, these books are commonly used for the Master of Second Language Teaching at Utah State University. This master's program is designed to train teachers to teach any second language. The purpose of this section is to investigate what these books recommend for teaching vocabulary

in a second language, also if there is any consideration of the unique characteristics of each language when discussing second language teaching or acquisition.

Vivian Cook addresses vocabulary learning strategies in Second Language Learning and Language Teaching (2016) which is an introductory book for teaching any second language. The book starts by presenting a background to second language acquisition research and language teaching. Later, the book touches upon the different skills of any language; grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and writing. The book sheds light on the individual differences in L2 users, L2 learners and native speakers. The last chapter talks about the styles of second language learning and teaching.

The third chapter of the book is about learning and teaching vocabulary; in this chapter the writer talks about the importance of learning vocabulary, the different types of vocabulary (verbs, nouns, etc.), how words are linked to their meaning, word frequency, knowledge of words, grammatical and lexical properties of words, and types of meaning. Towards the end of the chapter, the writer mentions some strategies for understanding and learning vocabulary such as using the dictionary, guessing the meaning from context, and repetition. The last section of the chapter is vocabulary and teaching, where the researcher lists 3 strategies to teach vocabulary, which are: demonstrating meaning, teaching the complexity of words and connecting teaching with students' strategies. It is surprising for any reader of this book (which is supposed to be a guide to new and old language teachers) to discover the absence of any explicit or implicit approaches and methodologies to teach vocabulary regardless of the target language.

The second book I analyzed was Shrum and Glisan's 2016 text, *Teacher's Handbook:* Contextualized Language Instruction. The philosophy of this book is to prepare instructors to provide language instruction that enables learners to acquire competency to create interpretive,

interpersonal and presentational communication with the knowledge of culture. The book has 12 chapters discussing various topics starting with Second Language Acquisition, SLA theories and research, a practical framework for integrating the five C's and ACTFL can-do statements, contextualizing learning, school curriculum, integrating culture, and three types of communication and writing. The last chapter is about technology and the 21st century language classroom. However, in this book, which is the *Teacher's Handbook*, there is no chapter or even a paragraph about vocabulary or how to teach it or learn it.

The books analyzed are very important in the field of second language teaching. They are also the required books for the Masters of Second Language Teaching program at Utah State University, which is meant to prepare language teachers to teach a variety of languages. However, these texts did not include the information I needed in order to develop vocabulary instruction in my L2 Arabic classes. They did not provide concrete vocabulary-teaching strategies nor any acknowledgement of how the characteristics of vocabulary knowledge and teaching may differ according to the language of instruction.

It is disappointing to see that so many important books in the field of language learning and teaching fail to tackle the importance of vocabulary teaching. As demonstrated above, vocabulary is a vital element of language learning; by neglecting to mention any vocabulary teaching strategies in general, or any specificity of vocab knowledge for the different languages taught across the world such as Arabic, Chinese, Urdu and many more, these books are limiting the resources available to language teachers and students. They are failing to provide any effective strategies for vocabulary acquisition/teaching. This lack of attention given to vocabulary, despite its importance, calls into question the support and guidance these teaching resources are providing to practitioners in the field of second language.

As an Arabic teacher who read these books, I found nothing that would be helpful to my teaching of Arabic vocabulary. I will elaborate in the next paragraphs what makes Arabic different from other alphabetical languages and explain why the few vocabulary-teaching strategies present in L2 pedagogical texts do not provide the support that teachers of Arabic need to teach the most challenging aspects of Arabic vocabulary.

a) Arabic Orthography

According to Maiza et al. (2021), orthography is defined as a letter composition that conceives a word or a part of the word or it is the process of the word's structure by putting letters together. Arabic orthography is an abjad. The consonants are represented by letters, and the vowels by optional diacritics. All verbs and most of the nouns are written primarily as roots that are differently affixed and vowelized to form the words of the lexicon (Purnet, Beland, & Idrissi, 2000). Arabic has 28 main letters (see Appendix 1) and three additional letters: ta-marbuta <>> ئ. أ. وْ.ع.إ.ئ > and the hamzat letters which can be written in 6 different shapes >. The basic letters and ta-marbuta <> > are consonants; each one corresponds to a different consonant. However, there are three more sounds (1, 2, 2) which can function as consonants (1/2), /w/, /2/) or long vowel (/i:/, /u:/, /a:/) sounds respectively, according to Al Ghanem & Kearns (2015). The Arabic long vowels are represented in the writing system as letters that are part of the words, whereas the three short vowels (/a/, /u/, /i/) are represented with three diacritics: << ^'.>> respectively. Using these diacritics to represent the short vowel sounds is called *vowelizing* and is optional. Abu-Rabia (1999) stated that texts written for beginners or religious scholars may be fully or partly vowelized. The short vowels are placed above or underneath the consonant. Tibi et al. (2021) claimed that Arabic has frequent homography which refers to words spelled the same way but that have different pronunciation. The best example on this is the three consonant word K-T-B کتب when it appears without short vowels, it can be pronounced differently: kataba کتب (to write), kutub کثب (books) or kutiba کثب (was written). This ambiguity can be eliminated by the representation of short vowels, especially for novice learners.

Arabic letters can be divided into two categories, connecting and non-connecting letters. The connecting letters are written in a cursive way which results in changing the shape of the letters. This is because the letter's shape depends on its position in the word and whether it is connected to a letter or not. For example, the letter "h" /h/ has four shapes (see Appendix A). (Tibi et al, 2021). Al Ghanem & Kearns (2015) stated that Arabic orthography is characterized by the formation of letters themselves; many of them look similar and are distinguished only by dots (ب.ت ن ث ن ث ب).

b) Arabic Morphology

Semitic languages such as Arabic and Hebrew are templatic languages (Oganyan, 2017). The process of morphological word formation in these languages is unique as they are morphologically non-linear or non-concatenative (Larcher, 2006). Words in Arabic are bi-morphemic, comprising of two independently unpronounceable bound morphemes: a root and a template, or word pattern (Taha & Saiegh-Haddad, 2016). The root, known in Arabic as a *jidr* is composed of three to four phonemes, typically consonants, and is represented orthographically with three letters (Taha, 2013). Any change in the order may create a new root, for instance M-L-K (reign), K-M-L (complete), L-K-M (punch).

Taha (2013) explains that a variety of words can be derived from the same root; all of these words share a common basic semantic relatedness. For example, the root K-T-B is shared across a plethora of Arabic lexical items, such as KaTaBa (wrote), aKTaBa (dictated), inKaTaBa (subscribed), etc., all of which are linked in meaning to the concept of writing. These roots are

inserted into patterns, which represent the syntactic aspects of the word and also its more specific semantic meaning. According to Oganyan (2017), Arabic verbs fall into a limited class of ten patterns. Verbs are formed by combining roots and patterns (see Table 2 below).

Table 2: Verb Patterns in Arabic

Patter	rns (past tense)	IPA	Example	Translation
I	FaSaLa	/faSala/	KaTaBa	wrote
II	FassaLa	/faccala/	KaTTaBa	made
III	FASaLa	/fa:Sala/	KATaBa	wrote to someone / writen agreement
IV	AF\$aLa	/a:faSala/	AKTaBa	dictated
V	TaFaSSaLa	/tafaSSla/	TaKaSSaRa	smashed
VI	TaFASaLa	/tafa: Sala/	TaKATaBa	corresponded (mutual)
VII	INFaʕaLa	/infaSala/	INKaTaBa	subscribed
VIII	IFTaγaLa	/iftaSala/	IKaTataBa	participate / take part
IX	IF\$aLLa	/ifʕalla/	IHaMaRRa	turned red'
X	ISTaF\$aLa	/istaf\ala/	ISTaKaTaBa	asked to write

Source: Oragnyan (2017: 15)

Note. For patterns V, IX, and X, a different root is provided for the example, given that the root K-T-B does not have a word with these patterns. In the source the example form given for, VIII and IX patterns was not correct; it was corrected for this version. The translation provided for III, VIII was revised as well.

Unlike verbs, nouns in Arabic do not have a limited class of patterns; there are at least one hundred noun patterns that can be combined with roots to create nouns (Oganyan, 2017). This templatic system, in which a jidr (root) is inserted into a pattern, presents a unique learning challenge for students of Arabic, as they must learn a morphological system fundamentally different from their own. Arabic word formation (both inflectional and derivational morphology) is based on discontinuous morphemes (Ryding, 2005). Users of Arabic cannot simply form words by adding prefixes or suffixes to known roots; rather, they must know both the root and the pattern, and be able to effectively insert the root into the pattern. This is further complicated by the fact that patterns are often categorized by the vowels that come between consonants of the root, and these vowels are often not represented in the written form of the word. In Tables 3 and 4 below, I provide two more examples of roots and the diverse templates into which they can be fit to form new words. Notice the robust nature of these roots and how widely they can be applied. In Table 4, for example, several different English root morphemes would need to be used to create words to express all these different meanings, yet they are all captured by the Arabic *jidr*, K-T-B. This is only a small sample of all the words created in Arabic using the K-T-B *jidr*.

Table 3: Example S-M-L

English	Arabic	IPA
He works(v)	يَعْمَل	/ja <u>S</u> mal/
He worked (past form)	عَمَل	/ <u>S</u> amal/
Worked (participle form)	عَمَل	/ <u>S</u> amal/
Work (noun)	العَمَل	/al <u>C</u> amal/
Work/tasks	أُعْمَال	/a <u>S</u> ma:1/
Workers	غُمَّال	/ <u>S</u> um'mal/

As evident in the tables above, the Arabic concept of *jidr* (root) involves a system which includes the addition of affixes as well as modifications to the vowels between the three consonants of the root. Thus, the root is non-contiguous, with both derivational and inflectional morphology involving intervening elements, usually vowels, within the three-consonant root. In English the change more often involves affixes. However, in Arabic it may involve several vowels. For example, the root K-T-B (to write) can form several words with different meanings (Ryding, 2005).

Table 4: Example K-T-B

English	Arabic	IPA
He wrote	كثب	/KaTaBa/
He corresponded	كَاتُبَ	/Ka:TaBa /
Book	كِتَاب	/KiTA:B/
Book writers	كُتَّاب	/KuTTaB /
Writer (adj) writing	كَاتِب	/KA:TiB/
Write (imperative)	اكتب	/uKTuB /

As you can see, each of these words are formed by inserting different vowels and consonants between the consonants of the root K-T-B. This morphological characteristic of Arabic allows speakers to create a wide range of words from a small set of consonants (root).

As an Arabic teacher who is aware of the importance of the root system in the Arabic language, I recognize that the unique characteristics of Arabic need to be at the center of my vocabulary teaching strategies. In the absence of clear guidance on teaching Arabic vocabulary, I have created my own strategies

As an instructor, I tend to introduce root awareness in an early stage of students' learning. It helps them to build a strong vocabulary background, which will improve their language skills.

I do this by introducing the most common roots with three consonants such as: K-T-B (to write), D-R-S (to study), Q-R-A (to read). Once they become familiar with that, I introduce the most common patterns such as: /faγalal/ (to do, he form, past tense), /fa:γil/ (the doer of whatever action), as well as the rule that says that any word starts with /ta/ often indicates the active present form. By using these strategies, learners start to recognize patterns and make connections between different words, which facilitates expanding their vocabulary repertoire.

This personalized approach to vocabulary learning is not only beneficial to my teaching, it is essential. The task of learning second language vocabulary is not the same for all L2 learners and thus the task of teaching second language vocabulary cannot be the same for all L2 teachers. Rather, exactly what L2 vocabulary learning involves differs according to the lexical characteristics of the second language. Even more important, it differs according to the similarities and differences between the students' L1 and L2 vocabulary systems. In the case of Arabic and English, the vast difference in both orthography and morphology create the need for specific strategies that recognize which aspects of Arabic vocabulary will be new to the students and guide them in acquiring this new system.

Effective vocabulary teaching requires strategies that consider the students' specific learning task and how the relationship between the L1 and the L2 affect their vocabulary acquisition. This does not necessarily mean, however, that all vocabulary teaching strategies be tied to a specific L1-L2 pairing, such as Arabic-English. Rather, it may be possible to identify language pairs with similar vocabulary learning challenges (and thus, similar vocabulary teaching strategies). One of the greatest challenges that L1 English, L2 Arabic learners face is learning a new script. In order to seek a more suitable teaching approach for Arabic vocabulary with respect to its specificity I suggest looking to another language that also has a different script than English

and most European languages. In the following section, I examine the suitability of Chinese-specific vocabulary teaching strategies. Chinese, along with Arabic, is one of the most widely spoken languages in the world. They both use characters and symbols to represent words rather than the Roman alphabet. Given that they present a shared challenge for their learners (acquisition of a new script), I examined Chinese vocabulary teaching strategies to determine if they could also be applied to Arabic instruction.

Similarities between Arabic and Chinese

Arabic is the official language of nineteen Arab countries and four international organizations, it's also one of the six official languages of the United States. Arabic is the language of Islam (Quran).

The Chinese language is the language of the Chinese Han nationality. It is currently one of the most widespread languages in the world. It comprises over 90% of the total population of China, as well as being the common social language of all nationalities of China.

Arabic and Chinese are 2 of 13 languages designated as "critical" by the U.S. Department of State. There is an urgent need to expand the teaching force in these important languages. Here are the most important approaches used by Chinese teachers to teach Chinese vocabulary and Chinese as a second language.

Approaches to Teaching Chinese Vocabulary

Fu (2005) identified various challenges that Mandarin, Chinese learners face due to the linguistic distance between English and European languages and Chinese. Even though many of the vocabulary-learning strategies used for learning English or other alphabetical languages also can be used in learning Chinese as a foreign language, some strategies may not be applicable to learning Chinese vocabulary. In fact, Bell (1995) investigated the effectiveness of using strategies

used for teaching English to teach Chinese and reported that the learning experience was challenging. She believed that one of the reasons was the ineffectiveness of applying the same general L2 vocabulary strategies and approaches to Chinese. She concluded that the unique orthographic and phonological features of the Chinese language have determined the necessity of using Chinese-specific strategies in addition to general vocabulary learning strategies. The two main Chinese-specific strategies that are uniquely used with Chinese learners are the following:

a) Chunking

Chunking refers to the process of grouping individual words in a sentence into large units. The process of learning and memorization Chinese characters and orders as larger units rather than individual characters (Zhang, 2021).

Xu (2016) argued that chunking is the overarching principle of human cognition. A chunk is a unit of memory organization, formed by bringing together a set of already formed chunks in memory and welding them together into a larger unit. Chunking implies the ability to build up such structures recursively, thus leading to a hierarchical organization of memory. Chunking in general is a learning skill that helps learners to learn faster. It facilitates recognition and plays an important role in retention as well. However, applying chunking in Chinese is quite different to chunking in general. According to Ellis (2017), applying the chunking concept in Chinese is typically related to the task of learning Chinese characters. As we know, the Chinese script is based on complex characters. Teachers help students deconstruct these Chinese characters, chunking them into smaller units to reduce the complexity of the form.

Chunking is a learning skill that helps students learn faster and recognize words more easily. This approach plays an important role in retention. Sung et al. (2019) reported the positive effect

that chunking has on learning Chinese characters and also that it makes retention easier as well, especially in the very first years of learning Chinese.

b) Pinyin

According to Shi (2019) Pinyin, literally "spelled sounds," is the official romanization system for standard Mandarin Chinese. It was developed in China during the 1950s. The Chinese government published it in 1958, and it was revised several times. The International Organization for Standardization (ISO) adopted Pinyin as an international standard in 1982. This system was adopted as the official standard in Taiwan in 2009. It is used to teach standard Chinese to both Chinese native speakers and second language learners, and it is helpful for vocabulary learning. It uses the Roman alphabet presenting the phonetic representation in Chinese, and it includes the four tones of Chinese.

Although both Chinese and Arabic writing systems differ from the Roman script that English speakers are familiar with, the challenge of learning Chinese characters is not the same as learning the Arabic abjad script. This is due to the unique orthographic features of Chinese characters and to the radical differences between Chinese and Arabic writing systems. Since both of them belong to different writing systems families, they require different teaching strategies: Pinyin and chunking for Chinese and root and patterns for Arabic. It is apparent that teaching vocabulary for Arabic learners cannot be accomplished through the same strategies that are effective for Chinese learners.

It is vividly clear that the vocabulary language strategies mentioned above which are used to teach Chinese will not work with L1 English, L2 Arabic language learners. Rather, it is necessary to find or develop specific vocabulary teaching strategies that account for the unique features of the Arabic language. In summary, neither the vocabulary teaching strategies used by

English teachers (or teachers of European languages) nor the ones used for Chinese will work for Arabic. With this being said, it is still not necessarily the case that we need to develop specific vocabulary teaching strategies for every L1/L2 language pairing, and it still may be possible to find another language which presents a similar vocabulary learning challenge to students as Arabic. This would allow us to apply vocabulary teaching strategies developed for that language to Arabic classrooms as well. I suggest exploring a language which is closer to Arabic than English and Chinese. This language is Hebrew.

Arabic and Hebrew

The structure of Arabic languages and the structure of Hebrew are similar to each other. In order to show the closeness in their morphology and orthography I give an illustration of the verbal and nominal systems of the two languages Hebrew and Arabic.

Hebrew and Arabic do not share a script. However, their two distinct scripts are both abjad scripts and share essential characteristics. According to Oganyan (2017) there are similarities in morphology between Hebrew and Arabic as Semitic languages, especially in respect to the verbal and nominal system. As it is known, Semitic languages are unique with their own templatic morphological system. According to Hetzron (1976) both Arabic and Hebrew can be classified as stemming from the Central Semitic branch.

a) Root and Morpheme:

Semitic morphology has two main distinctive features. First, it involves the use of three-consonant roots, which are widely applied across the lexicon. Second, in Semitic languages like Arabic and Hebrew, morphemes can be combined in a non-linear manner, while in non-Semitic languages, affixes are utilized which either precede or follow the root, but typically are not inserted between elements of the root. To illustrate, the Hebrew word "hitkatev" (to correspond) can be

broken down into a three-consonant *jidr* (root) K-T-V and a template with placeholders for the root letters (HiTR1aR2eR3). The word is formed by adding root consonants into placeholders in the template (Oganyan, 2017).

Table 5: Templatic Morphology: Hebrew

Transliteration		English Gloss
Root	Root K.T.V	
Template	H-i-TR1-a-R2-e-R3	Reflexive verb
Word	H-i-TK-a-T-e-V	To correspond
Affix TI		PAST-Singular
Affixed	H-i-TK-a-T-a-V TI	I corresponded

Source: Oganyan (2017, p. 12)

Note. R=root

Arabic words correspondingly consist of a root and template (patterns) as illustrated in Table 6 using the root D.R.S. "to study." When combined with the causative template R1aR2R2aR3a, it creates the word "Darrasa" meaning to teach. Words in Arabic are also affixed for inflectional morphology.

Table 6: Templatic Morphology: Arabic

	Transliteration	English Gloss
Root	D.R.S	Study
Template	R1-a-R2 R2-a-R3-a	Causative verb
Word	D-a-RR-a-S-a	To teach
Affix	TU	Past singular
Affixed	D-a-RR-a-STU	I taught

Source: Oganyan (2017:12)

Note. R=root

b) Verbs:

In Hebrew grammar, patterns are represented using a formalism in which the three root letters are substituted with the letters P (sometimes pronounced [f]), ς , and L, where P is the first letter, ς the second and L the third. Similarly, in Arabic, the formalism uses the letters F, ς , and L

to represent the root letters. Hebrew has 7 different verbal patterns whereas Arabic has 10 patterns; 7 of them are the most frequently used (see Table 2 in the morphology section)

Hebrew and Arabic nouns, the same as verbs, consist of roots and patterns. However, in contrast to verbs, nouns do not have a limited closed class of templates. In both Hebrew and Arabic, there are at least one hundred noun templates of varying productivity which can be combined. For instance, in Arabic, verbal nouns for Template II verbs ([fassala]) are of the form [tassil]. Thus the verbal noun for the verb "darrasa" (to teach) is then "tadris" meaning teaching. Similarly, in Hebrew, for example, the verbal noun for template [hissil] is [hassala]. So, the verbal noun of the verb "hizmin" (to invite) is "hazmanh" (invitation).

c) Gender

Hebrew and Arabic nouns have masculine and feminine grammatical gender. Feminine is always marked while masculine is the default. For example: in Arabic the word for male cat is "ket" while the female is "keta", similarly, in Hebrew word cat is "xatul" and the female is "xatula".

d) Dual

Arabic and some varieties of Hebrew use a dual marker suffix, 'ayim' in Hebrew and 'een'/'ayn' in Arabic. In order to refer to two of something, the two languages use the dual rather than plural.

Verbs in both Hebrew and Arabic are inflected for a variety of categories. In Hebrew verbs can be imperative, participle/present, past and future. Agreement in Arabic and Hebrew is important, verbs agree with the subject in person, number and gender. Adjectives agree in gender and number with the nouns they are describing.

As you may notice, the similarities between Arabic and Hebrew are endless. Especially in word formation, which plays an important role in word recognition. This encourages teachers to adopt the same teaching strategies. Even though the script is different, the rules and how words are constructed are similar. Since the two languages are using the same word structure and formulation strategies, this imposes the same learning challenges for their learners. I assume that Hebrew learners and Arabic learners are facing the same struggles while learning these two languages. This later may encourage teachers to adopt the same strategies as well as working together to come up with some learning strategies that serve best these two languages with respect to their specificities.

Conclusion

This paper is a comprehensive analysis of teaching strategies employed by Arabic language teachers. The primary focus of this paper is to investigate effective vocabulary teaching strategies in Arabic language instruction. However, upon examining the available literature it became apparent that there is a significant gap in research on this topic. There are insufficient specific strategies for teaching Arabic vocabulary that could be applied to language instruction. Considering this challenge, the researcher proposed adopting teaching strategies from non-European languages such as Chinese. Nevertheless, it became evident that these strategies are not transferable to Arabic due to the unique features of the Arabic script and characters. Therefore, a new approach was necessary to address this issue. The researcher then turned to Hebrew, a language that shares many similarities with Arabic, for potential vocabulary teaching strategies. Many similarities exist between Hebrew and Arabic, mainly in the morphological aspect of these languages, and it seems that vocabulary teaching strategies from either language could be applied to the other. Unfortunately, though there has been much research on the history of Hebrew and its

revitalization, there is a lack of pedagogical research on how to teach its vocabulary. Critically, it was not possible to find any pedagogical research on Hebrew regarding the learning and teaching of an abjad writing system or root/template word-formation. Thus, there is no body of literature from which an Arabic teacher can draw to help them address the unique challenge of Arabic vocabulary teaching and learning. This paper emphasizes the need for further research to develop effective vocabulary teaching strategies that take into account the specificities of each language, particularly Arabic. This gap in research is significant, given the importance of vocabulary instruction in language learning and the challenges facing Arabic language teachers. Therefore, it is imperative to continue to explore new strategies and methodologies to enhance the quality of Arabic language instruction. Ultimately, this will contribute to the development of a more effective and efficient vocabulary teaching approach in Arabic language instruction.

STATEMENT OF FUTURE GOALS

One of my favorite teachers once told us that: "The good teacher is the one who has the ability to inspire their students." I believe in this quote because once teachers spark students' interest, that motivation stays with them and can motivate them to fulfill their potential. This type of teacher will always be remembered. By enrolling in the MSLT program at Utah State University (USU) and having the chance to teach lower-division Arabic classes at USU, I have gained indepth teaching skills and methods. This program made me realize the importance of the continuous learning of teaching skills as well as being a flexible teacher who can adapt whatever approach or activity to their class and not use them as they are. Being an authentic and a creative teacher is the best combination any educator can have.

In the future, I see myself as an educator and as a researcher. I look forward to conducting studies and testing theories in my Arabic language classes. I hope to be able to answer some existing questions in the field of teaching Arabic as a second language. I envision myself contributing to the field of teaching Arabic as a second language and using technology to serve this purpose.

As a researcher the way I want to contribute to the field of Arabic language vocabulary is by designing a standardized Arabic vocabulary test to measure vocabulary size of Arabic learners as a second language. There is an urgent need of a diagnostic tool that would empower the researchers to collect more reliable data. I will focus on integrating technology in the tool, The ultimate goal is to design a technology-based language assessment tool for vocabulary. As a teacher I will work hard to find and join the Arabic and Hebrew teachers' communities. We will work together to design some teaching tools and activities that would make teaching Arabic and Hebrew more accessible.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Arabic Alphabet

Name	Isolated	Initial	Middle	Final	IPA
'Alif	1	1	1	L	/a:/, /a/
Bā'	ب	ب	-	Ų.	/b/
Tā'	ت	ت	<u> </u>	ت	/t/
Thā'	ث	ث	ث	ث	/θ/
Jīm	<u>ح</u>	ج	-	_ج	/d3/
Ḥā'	ح			_ح	/h/
Khā'	خ	خـ	خـ	خ	/x/
Dāl	٦	7	7	7	/d/
Dhāl	ذ	ذ	ァ	テ	/ð/
Rā'	ر	ر	ـر	٠	/r/
Zāy	ر ز	ز	<u>ر</u> ز	ر ز	/z/
Sīn	س			_ w_	/s/
Shīn	m	شــ	شــ	ش	/ʃ/
Şād	ص	صد	ے	ے ص	/s ^s [e]/
 Þād	ض	ضد	ـضــ	_ض	/d ^s [e]/
Ţā'	ط	ط	ط	ط	/t ^s [e]/
Zā'	当	ظـ	ظ	当	/ð ^s [e][g]/
Cayn	ع	ع	2	ے	/\$/
Ghayn	<u>و</u> غ	غ	غ	ـغ	/ɣ/ /f/
Fā'	ف	ف	<u>ف</u>	ف	/f/
Qāf	ق	ق	<u>ق</u>	ـق <u>ك</u>	/q/
Kāf	ك	ک	ک	<u>1</u>	/k/
Lām	J	7	7	J	/1/
Mīm	م	مـ	ـمـ	ے	/m/
Nūn	ن	ن	立	ڹ	/n/
Hā'	٥	_&	-6-	هـ	/ħ/
Wāw	و	-و	-و	-و	/w/, /u:[1]/
Yā'	ي	یـ	<u> </u>	-ي	/i:[i]/, /j/
Hamza	ç				/3/

Appendix B

Table B1, Hebrew Alphabet

Name	Form	Sound	IPA
Aleph	*	silent	/?/
Beis	2	b	/b/
Veis	ב	V	/v/
Gimel	٦	g	/g/, /ɣ/
Dalet	7	d	/ð/, /d/
Hay	ה	h	/h/
Vav	١	v or oo	/w/
Zayin	7	Z	/z/
Khes	π	kh	/χ/, /ħ/
Tes	ט	t	/t ^s /, /t/
Yud	,	у	/j/
Kaf	5	k	/k/
Lamed	ל	1	/1/
Mem	מ	m	/m/
Nun	נ	n	/n/
Samekh	٥	S	/s/
Ayin	ע	silent	/\$/
Pay	5	p	/p/
Fay	Ð	f	/f/
Tzadi(k)	צ	tz	/tʃ/
Kuf	ק	k	/q/
Raysh	٦	r	/r/
Shin	v ⁱ	sh	/ʃ/
Sin	Ü	S	/s/
Tav	n	t	/t/
Sav	ת	th	/θ/, /t/

Table B2, Letters at the End of Words

Default Name	Default Form	Final Name	Final Form	Sound
Khaf	٥	Final Khaf	٦	/x/
Mem	מ	Final Mem	ם	/m/
Nun	נ	Final Nun	7	/n/
Fay	5	Final Fay	។	/f/
Tzadi(k)	2	Final Tzadi(k)	Y	/ <u>t</u> ʃ/

Appendix C
Fifty Most Frequent Chinese Characters

Frequency	Character	Pinyin
Ranking		
1	的	de
2	了	le
3	_	yī
4	我	wŏ
5	是	shì
6	在	zài
7	不	bù
8	说	shuō
9	个	gè
10	他	tā
11	到	dào
12	着	zhe
13	有	yŏu
14	小	xiǎo
15	你	nĭ
16	上	shàng
17	这(儿)	zhè
18	就	jiù
19	看	kàn
20	里	lĭ
21	很	hěn
22	和	hé
23	来	lái
24	好	hǎo
25	地	de
26	大	dà
27	也	yě
28	把	bă
29	去	qù
30	都	dōu
31	我们	wŏmen
32	要	yào
33	天	tiān

34	妈妈	māma
35	它	tā
36	还	hái
37	想	xiǎng
38	只	zhī
39	吃	chī
40	又	yòu
41	什(甚)么	shénme
42	爸爸	bàba
43	那(儿)	nà
44	人	rén
45	得	de
46	他们	tāmen
47	给	gěi
48	家	jiā
49	会	huì
50	她	tā

Note. Retrieved from: Mandarin Institute (2015).