

Grammatical Problems
Involved
in Teaching English
to Speakers of Syrian Arabic

by

9 M. Z. Samhoury

Presented for the Degree of Ph.D.
in the Department of English,
University of Leeds,
October, 1965

BEST COPY

AVAILABLE

Variable print quality

PULLOUT

Errata

- Page 19, line 27 substitute 'SallaHuton-on' for 'SallaHuton-on'
- Page 49, line 16 substitute 'preceded' for 'precede'
- Page 122, line 11 substitute 'genitive' for 'genotive'
- Page 153, line 18 substitute 'binayyoz' for 'binayyox'
- Page 178, line 13 substitute 'cardinal' for 'ordinal'
- Page 183, line 10 substitute 'ʔawwal' (first) to 'ʔansar' (tenth)
for 'waahod' (one) to 'ʔasra' (ten)
- Page 183, line 11 substitute 'cardinal' for 'ordinal'
- Page 185, line 18 substitute 'definite' for 'determined'
- Page 225, line 7 substitute 'is' for 'it'
- Page 265, line 26 substitute 'faayot' for 'faayest'
- Page 267, line 10 substitute 'or' for 'of'
- Page 267, line 19 delete 'by' after 'travelling'
- Page 288, line 6 insert 'in' between 'illustrated' and 'the'
- Page 300, line 15 substitute 'byustinu??' for 'byusinu??'
- Page 316, line 10 substitute 'ba9d' for 'bad'
- Page 346, line 18 substitute 'syntactical' for 'syntactic'

Acknowledgment

Throughout the preparation of this thesis my supervisor, Professor T. F. Mitchell, has been an untiring and patient guide. His valuable suggestions and constructive criticism have saved me from a number of inclarities, inaccuracies, and downright absurdities. Not least am I grateful to him for his encouragement in the periods of depression that befall most research students throughout their work. For such inestimable debt my most grateful and sincere thanks are due.

It must be added that for all errors and imperfections remaining, I am, of course, wholly responsible.

Introduction

While it is possible to find common ground where the linguist can meet the language teacher, the unmistakable contributions of the linguist to the field of language teaching seem to be twofold: he is able to provide, firstly, satisfactory attitudes to language study, and, secondly, descriptive material of the language/s concerned upon which textbooks can be based. As a matter of personal choice the linguist may choose to go beyond the normal intra-lingual comparisons of descriptive linguistics to concern himself with the inter-lingual comparisons of what has come to be known as descriptive-contrastive linguistics. In 1957 Lado wrote,⁽¹⁾

"It will soon be considered quite out of date to begin writing a textbook without having previously compared the two systems (L_1 and L_2) involved."

While the present attitude of those concerned with teaching tends to agree with Lado, the translating of this attitude into concrete descriptive-contrastive work inevitably lags behind. Textbooks based on descriptive-contrastive work are awaited for many languages, Arabic in particular.

(1) Robert Lado, 'Linguistics Across Cultures', Ann Arbor, The University of Michigan Press, 1957, p.3.

The present thesis is a syntactic descriptive-contrastive study of English and Arabic which, it is hoped, could provide a partial basis for the preparation of textbooks of English for speakers of Arabic in general, and Syrian Arabic in particular.

Comparison is made between written English and spoken Damascene Arabic. This is justified by the fact that the foreign language Syrian students learn is written, and not spoken English. On the other hand, such points of conflict as may arise between L_2 (in this case written English) and the native language are referable to those structural features which are so deeply rooted in the learner since childhood that they become a hindrance in the foreign language learning situation. It is here maintained that such deeply built-in features are referable to the spoken language, which is learned in childhood, and not to the written language, which, though sharing many features with the spoken language, is nevertheless acquired at school in circumstances not very unlike those attending the teaching of a foreign language. At secondary school and university levels, however, students become proficient enough in the written language that it is to be expected that certain features (especially those common to both languages) will be transferred to the foreign language, and attested mistakes in English referable to the transfer of features of the written

language are quite frequent. Moreover, since rigorous description demands restriction to one language variety, it seems justifiable to base the description of Arabic on the spoken Arabic of Damascus, and especially on the norm provided by educated Damascene usage.

The analysis of Arabic is based on an eight-hour recording of spontaneous conversation in Damascene Arabic, selected samples of which appear in the Appendix. Moreover, two hundred examination scripts written in English by Syrian university students were analysed and mistakes reflecting transfer of Arabic features were classified according to the particular features transferred. As the title of this thesis indicates, only those mistakes reflecting grammatical (more especially syntactical) features are considered; lexical (including idiomatic) and phonological comparisons have not been attempted. That in a more complete analysis phonological statements would be necessary derives from the fact that the written English of the confrontation attempted carries with it the implication of utterance.

It will be seen, then, that the treatment of both English and Arabic, as to both topics and range, is determined to a large extent by the nature of the mistakes which have been found to reflect Arabic features. Moreover, the basis of the comparison itself (which otherwise would offend against strict

theoretical exigencies such as those maintained by linguists who reject aprioristic beliefs in universal categories) derives its partial justification from such mistakes.

In the process of classifying mistakes, recourse was had to "bilingual introspection" initially, prior to the specific comparison and contrast of English and Arabic texts. Certain mistakes were found to recur, and these were assumed to reflect transfer of Arabic features in conflict with English. Thus, Syrian English has provided, so to say, a bridge between English and Arabic, and has prompted the examination of those areas of Arabic and English linguistic organization between which, in the light of Syrian performance in English, comparison seems reasonably to be made. It seems plausible to hold that the comparisons on which all descriptive linguistic statements are based are subject to value-judgments, whether they are made intra- or inter-lingually; the man concerned to learn the language of, say, conveyancing in his own society, is faced with the problems of translation that would similarly confront him when he is addressing his attention to the learning of a foreign language. The difference between intra- and inter-lingual textual comparisons appears to be one of degree, rather than of kind.

Substantially similar analytical statements made in relation to each language separately justify the use of

one set of terms in application to the facts of both; it is reasonable to talk of, say, sentences, nouns, verbs, adjectives, subject, object, complement, etc. in relation to both English and Arabic. Because the comparability of such categories in the two languages is only partial, a generalized cross-identification of an item or class of items leads to mistakes of the type we are concerned with.

The thesis consists of two parts. Part I deals with simple sentence-types and complex sentences in English, and with what are deemed to be comparable sentences in Arabic. In Part II nominal phrases and verbal phrases are considered in the two languages. At each stage in the description, English and Arabic are compared and contrasted, and points of conflict between the two languages which are likely to cause difficulties for Syrians learning English are discussed and illustrated (and confirmed) by attested mistakes from the examination scripts written by Syrian students.

Transcription

The symbols used in the transcription of Arabic forms and brief reading conventions attaching to them are as follows:

A- Consonant letters

b : a voiced bilabial plosive;

f : a voiceless labio-dental fricative;

m : a bilabial nasal;

n : a denti-alveolar nasal;

l : a denti-alveolar lateral;

r : an alveolar roll;

š : a voiceless palato-alveolar fricative;

j : a voiced palato-alveolar fricative;

k : a voiceless velar plosive;

g : a voiced velar plosive;

x : a voiceless uvular fricative;

Ġ : a voiced uvular fricative;

q : a voiceless uvular plosive;

H : a voiceless pharyngeal fricative;

ḡ : a voiced pharyngeal fricative;

ʔ : a glottal plosive;

h : a glottal fricative;

S, Z, T, D, are "emphatic" consonants corresponding to s, z, t, d "non-emphatic".

Note: For the emphatics, the tongue must be broad (laterally expanded) throughout its length; for the corresponding non-emphatics, the tongue is narrow (laterally contracted); in addition, emphatic articulation is characterized by raising of the front of the tongue and lowering of the back, non-emphatic articulation by flattening of the tongue in the mouth. Lip-spreading is a feature of the non-emphatics and contrasts with neutral lip-position for the emphatics. s, z, S, Z are, of course, sulcal, and t, d, T, D, plosive.

w : a voiced bilabial semi-vowel;

y : a voiced palatal semi-vowel.

B- Vowel letters

- i : a short ^{close}/front spread vowel, half-close and somewhat centralized in closed syllables;
- u : a short close back to central, rounded when final or long;
- e : a mid to half-close front spread vowel;
- o : a mid to half-close back rounded vowel;
- a : a short open vowel, back notably in the environment of 'emphatic' consonants, otherwise mostly front.

C- Doubled letters

Long vowels and geminated consonants are shown by double letters.

D- The symbol © is used instead of an asterisk to indicate the impossibility of a given form or sequence of forms in either English or Arabic.

Contents

Introduction	page iii
Transcription	viii
 <u>Part I : Sentence-Structure</u>	
Introductory : Sentences in English and Arabic	1
Chapter One : (1) Simple Affirmative Sentences	4
A. Arabic Nominal, Verbal, fii, & Particle Sentences.	
B. English and Arabic types of affirmation	
(2) A. a) Negative Sentences in English	46
b) Negative Sentences in Arabic	
B a) Interrogative Sentences in English	
b) Interrogative Sentences in Arabic	
C. a) Questions in English	
b) Questions in Arabic	
D. a) The 'Emphatic' Verbal Periphrasis in English.	
b) Emphasis in Arabic.	
E. Verb Substitutes	
F. Tags	
Chapter Two : Complex Sentences	
(1) Complex Sentences in English	75
(2) Complex Sentences in Arabic	88
 <u>Part II : Phrase-Structure</u>	
Chapter One : Nominal Phrases	99
(1) Heads	
A. Nouns (English & Arabic)	
B. Pronouns (English & Arabic)	

Contents

(2) Adjuncts	140
A. Determiners (English & Arabic)	
B. Adjectives (English & Arabic)	
 Chapter Two : Verbal Phrases	
(1) A. Verb Phrases in English	207
B. Verb Phrases in Arabic	
(2) Distribution of Comparable Finite Forms	215
1. a) Simple Present in English	
a ¹) b + imperfect in Arabic	
a ²) Contrastive Implications	
b) Simple Past in English	
b ¹) Perfect Forms in Arabic	
b ²) Contrastive Implications	
2. a) Present Perfective in English	
a ¹)(i) Perfect Forms in Arabic	
(ii) Participial Forms in Arabic	
b) Past Perfective in English	
b ¹) kaan+Participial Forms in Arabic	
b ²) Contrastive Implications	
3. a) Present Continuative in English	
a ¹) 9am+imperfect in Arabic	
a ²)(i) Contrastive Implications	
(ii) Contrastive Implications	
(iii) Contrastive Implications	
b) Past Continuative in English	
b ¹) kaan+9am+imperfect Forms in Arabic	
b ²) Contrastive Implications	
4. a) Present Perfective Continuative	
in English	
a ¹) Saar+Prs.+9am+imperfect Forms	
in Arabic	
b) Past Perfective Continuative	
in English	
b ¹) kaan+Saar/?ul +9am+imperfect	
forms in Arabic	

5. a) Passive Forms in English	
b) Passive Forms in Arabic	
c) Contrastive Implications	
(3) Non-Finite Forms in English & Comparable Forms in Arabic	287
1. a) Infinitives in English	
b) O + imperfect Forms in Arabic	
c) Contrastive Implications	
2. -ing Forms in English	
a) Gerunds	
b) Al-Masdar	
3. a) Participles in English	
b) Participles in Arabic	
c) Contrastive Implications	
(4) A. Adverbs in English	333
B. Adverbs in Arabic	
C. Contrastive Implications	
<u>Appendix</u> Texts A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H	357
Translation of	
Texts A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H	372
<u>Bibliography</u>	389

1

Introductory

Sentence-Types in English and Arabic

Behind the seemingly endless variety of utterances in English and Arabic it is possible to discern a limited number of patterns which are endlessly repeated. Each of these patterns is made up of a number of elements, classes of words classified on the basis of morphological and/or syntactical characteristics. These recurring patterns will be called sentences⁽¹⁾.

Sentences in English can be classified into statements, questions, commands, and exclamations, on the one hand; and into simple, compound, and complex sentences, on the other. The first classification is best characterized in terms of

(1) The terms 'Sentence', 'Word', 'Syllable', all terms that are common linguistic coin, seem to defy any satisfactory definition and are best left undefined. Yet, though undefinable, the term 'Sentence' remains a convenient one in grammatical analysis. The object of this discussion being a practical one, namely, a contrastive study of English and Arabic, it has been found convenient to consider as sentences only those sequences which can be handled in terms of a subject-predicate dichotomy, this being established later on in the discussion on formal and not on notional criteria. Fries discusses the problem and its background in some detail in chapter 2 of his 'The Structure of English'.

the different responses associated with each type, as well as by contrastive features of word order, the relative position of the subject and the predicate (formally established below) being the most important. The second classification is made according to the number and interrelations of the clauses the sentences contain.

In Arabic also, it is possible to classify sentences correspondingly as statements, questions, commands, and exclamations, on the one hand; and simple, compound, and complex sentences, on the other.

Within sentences classified as simple sentences in English, it is possible to distinguish the following basic categories:

Affirmative : Negative

Declarative : Interrogative

Any sentence will require the use of two terms for its designation. Cf.

'I think so' -affirmative-declarative

'I don't think so' - negative-declarative

'Do you think so ?' - affirmative -interrogative

'Don't you think so ?' - negative -interrogative.

Description of these categories will reveal the important role played by auxiliaries in English, the behaviour of which in emphatic sentences, tags, and as verb substitutes, will also call for comment.

In the following, an outline study will be made of different types of simple statements, with corresponding negative, interrogative, and emphatic sentences, as well as tags and verb substitutes, and contrast will be drawn between English types and what are deemed to be comparable types in Arabic. But, first, a general outline of simple sentences in Arabic is considered appropriate.

Chapter One

(1)

Simple Affirmative Sentences

A. Arabic Nominal, Verbal, fii & Particle Sentences

Within sentences classified as simple statements it is possible to distinguish three main types: Nominal Sentences, Verbal Sentences, and fii & Particle Sentences.

Nominal Sentences

Nominal sentences are characterized by the absence of verbals (except in relative pieces⁽¹⁾) and also by their contrastive relations with comparable structures exhibiting different distributions of the definite article⁽²⁾. Thus in relation to the structure: 'N - Adj.' different constructions obtain according to whether the article is associated with the noun, the adjective, or both, or neither. Cf.

- (1) lbeet kbiir (the house is big)
- (2) beet lukbiir⁽³⁾ (the house of the big (one))
- (3)a) lbeet lukbiir (the big house)
- b) beet kbiir (a big house)

(1) A Nominal Sentence can have for its subject a relative piece containing a verbal, e.g. 'yalli rubeH ?axuuk' (the one who won is your brother), where the underlined relative piece contains the verbal 'rubeH'.

(2) See pp.141ff.

(3) For the shape of the definite article see footnote 1, p.144

In (1) only the noun is prefixed with the article and the resulting construction is an exocentric one of the subject-predicate type since it belongs to the form class of no immediate constituent⁽¹⁾. In other words it cannot occupy any of the positions filled by either of the constituents. In (2) it is the second component that is prefixed with the article to form an endocentric construction (a nominal phrase with the nominal 'beet' as the head-word)⁽²⁾, or what is known in Arabic as 'The Construct'. In (3) a) and b) we have endocentric constructions since they belong to the same form-class as the constituents 'lbeet' and 'beet' in a) and b) respectively. In (3) a) both members are prefixed with the article and the resulting construction is a definite nominal phrase that can operate as a definite noun, i.e. it can fill positions typically occupied by definite nouns.⁽³⁾ (3) b) is opposed to (3) a) in terms of definiteness-indefiniteness since neither of its constituents is associated with the article.

(1) Leonard Bloomfield^e, 'Language', Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1933, p.194.

(2) 'Head' is a useful term in describing structures which consist of two or more forms, one of which is functionally equivalent to the whole form. This is the head; the other form/s being called 'Modifiers'.

(3) It is necessary to distinguish two categories of nominals in Arabic: definite and indefinite nominals. A definite nominal is that which can occupy subject position (see below) The category includes: (1) proper nouns (yuusef (Joseph), london (London)); (2) personal or demonstrative pronouns (?ana (I), haada (this)); (3) nouns preceded by the .../...

Cr.

- (1) lbeet kbiir (the house is big)
- (2) baa9 beet (he sold a house)
 baa9 beet lukbiir (he sold the house of the old (one))
- (3) a) lbeet nbaa9 (the house was sold)
 lbeet lukbiir nbaa9 (the big house was sold)
- b) štara beet (he bought a house)
 štara beet kbiir (he bought a big house)

In the above examples only (1) is a nominal sentence. It may be added that junctural features may play their part in distinguishing (1) from the other structures. In (1) there is a potential pause after 'lbeet', which is absent in the other three.

Nominal Sentences comprise a definite nominal or a relative piece, which colligates with a following nominal (definite or indefinite), an adjective, an adverb, or a particle compounded with a pronominal suffix. This sentence-type may be summarised as follows:

$$\overset{d}{N/Rel. P.} - \overset{d}{N/N/Adj./Adv./Part.} + Prs.$$

where $\overset{d}{N}$ is a definite nominal; Rel. P., a relative piece; -, separates syntactic elements of structure; N, an indefinite

Cont.

definite article 'l' (lbeet (the house), lwalad (the boy));
 and (4) nouns colligating with a pronominal suffix or another definite nominal (?ax-i (my brother), ktaab waa?el (Wael's book)).

noun; Adj., an adjective; Adv., an adverb; Part. + Prs., a particle combined with a pronominal suffix.

Examples are:

- | | |
|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| (1) waaʔel ʔubni (Wael is my son) | (N ^d - N ^d) |
| (2) waaʔel rujjaal (Wael is a man) | (N ^d - N) |
| (3) waaʔel zaki (Wael is clever) | (N ^d - Adj.) |
| (4) waaʔel barra (Wael is outside) | (N ^d - Adv.) |
| (5) waaʔel ma9i (Wael is with me) | (N ^d - Part. + Prs.) |

In all the above examples we can substitute a relative piece for the nominal in initial position. Thus we can have

yalli naam ʔubni/rujjaal/zaki/barra/ma9i
 ((the one) who slept is my son/ a man/clever/outside/with me

Another sub-type of nominal sentence which should be noted is exemplified by the following examples, wherein an initial nominal colligates with a nominal sentence in which a noun is compounded with a pronominal suffix agreeing with the first nominal in number and gender, e.g.

- 9adnaan ʔubno rfiiʔi (lit.: Adnan, his son is my friend)
- ʔuxti joozha mwaZZaf (lit.: My sister, her husband is a civil servant)
- luktaab su9ro Gaali (lit.: The book, its price is expensive)
- lkutub su9ron Gaali (lit.: The books, their price is expensive)

This sub-type of nominal sentences can be formulated thus:

$$\overset{d}{N} - N + \text{Prs.} - \overset{d}{N}/\text{Adj.}/\text{Adv.}/\text{Part.} + \text{Prs.}$$

Having considered the different types of nominal sentence, as far as its constituent components are concerned, it is convenient to introduce the terms 'subject' and 'predicate' when reference is made to these components. ⁽¹⁾ The subject-predicate dichotomy is established inter alia on the basis of the position of the negative particle (see below), which always precedes the predicate, whether the latter precedes or follows the subject. Thus in nominal sentences of the following structure

$$\overset{d}{N}/\text{Rel. P.} - \overset{d}{N}/\text{N}/\text{Adj.}$$

the nominal or the relative piece in initial position will be called 'subjects'; and the elements in the second position will be called 'predicates'. If the subject is a nominal, it agrees with the predicate in number and gender; and when the subject is a relative piece containing a verbal, agreement between this verbal and the predicate is also operative in terms of gender and number, e.g.

(1) We must hasten to say that these terms are established on formal grounds (see below) and do not necessarily imply a belief in a priori universal categories. They are simply useful labels in the description of the structure of sentences.

Subject a nominal

lwaɪad ʔubni /tilmiiz/mhazzab (masc. sing.)
 (the boy is my son/a pupil/polite)

lbunt bunti/tilmiize/mhazzabe (fem. sing.)
 (the girl is my daughter/a pupil/polite)

luwɪad w ulbanaat wlaadi/talamiz/mhazzabin (plural)
 (the boys and girls are my children/pupils/polite)

Subject a relative piece

yalli raah ʔubni (masc. sing.)
 (the one who went is my son)

yalli raahet bunti (fem. sing.)
 (the one who went is my daughter)

yalli raahu wlaadi (plural)
 (those who went are my children)

As has been implied above, the relative position of the subject and predicate in nominal sentences is not fixed. The predicate in all examples of nominal sentences can precede the subject. In a sentence of the structure

$$N^d - N^d$$

where the subject and predicate are definite nominals, and in sentences of the following structure

$$N^d - \text{Adv./Part.} + \text{Prs.}$$

where no form of agreement operates between the nominal and the adverbial or the particle combined with a pronominal suffix, the position of the negative particle, which always precedes the predicate, in the negative counterparts of sentences classified as nominal sentences (see below), is taken as an important

criterion for establishing the subject-predicate dichotomy. Cf.

Affirmative

9adnaan ?axi
(Adnan is my brother)

9adnaan foo?
(Adnan is upstairs)

9adnaan 9andi
(Adnan is with me)

Negative

9adnaan muu ?axi
(Adnan is not my brother)

9adnaan muu foo?
(Adnan is not upstairs)

9adnaan muu 9andi
(Adnan is not with me)

and

?axi 9adnaan

foo? 9adnaan

9andi 9adnaan

muu ?axi 9adnaan

muu foo? 9adnaan

muu 9andi 9adnaan

ii) Verbal Sentences

Verbal sentences are characterized by the presence of a verbal form in the place occupied by the predicate elements of nominal sentences. Verbals are established on the basis of their association with special systems of affixes, for distinguishing between which person, number, and gender categories are appropriately employed⁽¹⁾. These sentences are of various types and will subsequently be described and contrasted in some detail with what are considered to be comparable sentences in English. The following are a few examples, in which the verbal forms are underlined:

(1) See p. 212

?unni butnaam bakkiir
(My mother goes to bed early)

nnataa?ej t9alla?et mbaarooH
(the results were posted yesterday)

Tullaab ntaxabu yaasor ra?iis
(the students elected Yasser president)

111) fii & Particle Sentences

fii sentences are made up of fii + an indefinite nominal, or fii + a particle combined with a pronominal suffix preceding an indefinite nominal, e.g.

fii fulum Hulu bi sinema lfardoos
(there is a nice film at Al-Fardos cinema)

fii ?ulak maktuub
(there is a letter for you)

Particle sentences are made up of one of a closed list of particles (9and, ma9, foo?, taHt, wara, jamb, ?uddaam) combined with a pronominal suffix and followed by an indefinite noun, e.g.

9andi Dyuuf (lyoom)
(I have guests today)

ma9i tazkarteen sinema
(I have two cinema tickets)

Cf. '9and uDDyuuf' (with the guests) which is a kind of prepositional phrase and not a particle sentence, the difference between the prepositional phrase and the particle sentence residing in the fact that the particle in the former occurs by itself and can be followed by a definite or indefinite nominal ('jamb ?ahwe' (near a cafe)), whereas the particle in the latter is combined with a pronominal suffix and is followed by an indefinite noun only.

Particle sentences of this type should be distinguished from nominal sentences of similar structure. Cf.

- A. (1) ma9i tazkarteen
(I have two tickets)
- (2) ma9i ttazkarteen
(the two tickets are with me)
or ttazkarteen ma9i
(the two tickets are with me)

and

- B. (1) maa ma9i tazkarteen
(I haven't two tickets)
- (2) muu ma9i ttazkarteen
(the two tickets are not with me)
or ttazkarteen muu ma9i
(the two tickets are not with me)

Difference between (1) and (2) are statable in terms of the definiteness or indefiniteness of the nominal, variability or otherwise in the relative positions of the nominal and the particle, and the form of the negative particle associated with (1) and (2). Thus in (1) the nominal must be indefinite and must follow the particle, and the sentence is associable with the negative particle 'maa'. In (2), the nominal must be definite, can follow or precede the particle, and the sentence is associable with the negative particle 'muu'.

fii and particle sentences have two characteristics in common: 1. they must have an indefinite noun following 'fii' or the particle. 2. they associate with the negative particle

'maa'. Moreover, they share with nominal sentences the characteristic that verbal forms are excluded from them. They differ, however, in that the particle in particle sentences can ^{be} preceded by a definite nominal of the same number, person, and gender as the pronominal suffix appended to the particle; whereas fii sentences cannot be preceded by any nominal. Particle sentences, moreover, may be included in fii sentences. Examples are:

(1) 9ando Dyuuf
(he has guests)

?axi 9ando Dyuuf
(my brother has guests)

(2) 9ando Hafle (bukra)
he is giving a party (to-morrow))

fii 9ando Hafle (bukra)
(he is giving a party (to-morrow))

B. English and Arabic types of affirmation

Within simple sentences classified as statements, it is possible to distinguish several types.

Type I

The first type of sentence is made up of a nominal and a verbal linked together by a certain agreement of form expressible in terms of a combined category of person and number. The nominal in first position is the subject; the verbal, the predicate.

This sentence-type may be given the formula, N — V, in which 'N' represents a nominal or nominal phrase in first position; 'V', a verbal or verbal phrase in second position; and '—' indicates the linkage (actual or potential) of the two constituents by agreement in terms of number and person.

(1) The terms 'nominal' and 'verbal' are used in the sense given to them by James Sledd in his 'A Short Introduction to English Grammar', Scott, Foreman and Co., Chicago, 1959, namely, a nominal is a word or larger form which occupies a position typically occupied by nouns (pp. 83 ff); and a 'verbal' is a word or phrase which occupies a position typically occupied by verbs (pp. 89 ff)

(2) Cf.

I, you, they	ask	and	he, she, it	asks
the men	ask	and	the man	asks
I, we, you,				
they, the men	asked	and	the man	asked

Examples of sentences of this type are:

The Assembly meets (tonight)
 Birds sing
 Mother sings (beautifully)
 He left
 That hurts

While sentences of this minimal type are not frequent, the structural pattern, expanded in more elaborate sentences, is nevertheless of high frequency.

Within sentences classified as simple statements in Arabic, three main types have been distinguished: nominal sentences, verbal sentences, and fii & particle sentences (see pp.4 ff.). Sentences of type I in English correspond to a sub-type of verbal sentences in Arabic. Such sentences are made up of a nominal and a verbal, patterns of agreement between which may be formulated in terms of number and gender. Examples are:

l?ujtimaa9 bada
 (the meeting has started)

TTyuur butGanni
 (birds sing)

?ummi butGanni
 (mother sings)

huwwe saafar
 (he left)

haada byi?zi
 (this hurts)

Sentences of this type are summarised under the formula,
 (1)
 n — v, and are in general comparable to English sentences of
 type I.

As we have seen, the presence or absence of the article
 in Arabic serves to distinguish two different structures. Cf.

(1) TTyuur butGanni
 (the birds sing or birds sing)

with

(2) Tyuur butGanni
 (birds (that) sing or singing birds)

(1) is a sentence comprising a definite noun and a verb linked
 with it by agreement in number and gender. (2) is a nominal
 phrase containing an indefinite noun followed by a verb func-
 tionally equivalent to an adjective in this phrasal type.

Distributional differences between the article 'l' in
 Arabic and the definite article 'the' in English are consi-
 dered below (pp.141 ff)

A more important difference between N - V and n - v lies
 in the fact that while the nominal can precede or follow the

(1) Formulae referring to Arabic will be written in small letters
 and those referring to English in capital letters.

verbal in Arabic, the nominal in English tends to precede the verbal except in cases where it is preceded by an auxiliary or when one of a number of adverbial elements occurs initially in the sentence, as in, 'Here comes Mary', 'Up went the balloon'; or in certain restricted languages, that of stage directions for instance, cf. 'Enter the murderer...', etc. Contrariwise, in Arabic, free variation is the case between

biGanni TTeer	and	TTeer biGanni	(the bird sings)
?axuuk saafar	and	saafar ?axuuk	(your brother left)
?ana ŝufto	and	ŝufto ?ana	(I saw him)

Behind this overall statement lie certain differences between English and Arabic, relative to the possible forms that can occupy the nominal and verbal positions in the two languages. These forms and their distribution will be dealt with later on in this exposition. What is of immediate concern, however, is the fact that, in English, nominals which may be called common nouns ⁽¹⁾ (a sub-class of nouns characterised by plural inflection as well as by the associability of its members with the so-called case-inflection ⁽²⁾) do not appear in

(1) See chapter on nouns, pp. 100 ff.

(2) While most grammars of English speak of a two-case system being applicable to nouns, it must be borne in mind that 'case' is not applicable to English nouns only, since it may associate with larger structures. Cf. 'the king of .../...

the singular unless accompanied by a determiner⁽¹⁾, a closed class whose members appear before nominals and can be considered as markers or identifiers of nouns. The class comprises among its membership: the, a, an, this, my, etc.⁽²⁾

In Arabic, on the other hand, what are deemed to be comparable nouns, in subject position, must always be definite, i.e. preceded by the article 'l', or followed by a pronominal suffix or a definite noun.⁽³⁾

The positional free variation of the nominal and verbal in Arabic in sentences of this type as opposed to the fixed relative positions of the nominals and verbals in English constitutes a conflict between the two languages which is reflected by the following attested mistakes made by speakers of Syrian Arabic:

continued

England's people'. A rather far-fetched example is quoted by Archibald A. Hill in his 'Introduction to Linguistic Structures. From Sound to Sentence in English.', Harcourt, Brace and Co., New York, 1958, p.187, 'She goes with the boy who lives across the street's brother.'

(1) James Sledd, op. cit., pp.97-8.

(2) See 'determiners' below, pp.140 ff.

(3) See footnote (3), pp. 5-6

- Ⓐ Appeared the results of the examination.
- Ⓑ Arrived Siham an hour ago.
- Ⓒ Neglected the students their work through the year.
- Ⓓ In our English course in this year spoke our teachers about different English writers.
- Ⓔ Amongst the Arabic writers stands Najib Mahfouz in first class.

The following mistakes reflect the same kind of conflict as well as another feature which will call for comment:

- Ⓐ She corrected them the teacher
- Ⓑ He went your friend
- Ⓒ They had their supper the children

In order to account for the above mistakes another contrastive feature between English and Arabic should be pointed out. Reference is to a basic difference between Arabic and English verbs, Arabic verbs being variable in two tenses within parallel 8-term systems of forms, whereas English verbs (except the verb 'to be') are variable only in the present tense and only then within a two-term system. Thus Arabic forms 'SallaHet' and 'raaH' are of the third person singular feminine and masculine respectively, and are rightly equated by the native speaker of Arabic with 'she corrected' and 'he went'. The tendency thereafter is for the Arabic speaker to associate what he considers an appropriate form with English finite verbal forms, and this is illustrated by the above example 'She corrected them the teacher' which is a calque of Arabic 'SallaHuton ul?ustaaze' where 'SallaHuton-on' has been equated with 'she corrected them' and 'l?ustaaze', with 'the teacher'.

The association by the Arabic speaker of the pronominal with the verbal form is not restricted to pre-subjectival contexts, as in the last examples, but can occur in all English contexts, notably in post-subjectival position, as in the following examples:

- ③ My wife she speaks English very well.
- ③ My daughter she plays the piano.
- ③ The television it costs much.

where 'she speaks', 'she plays', 'it costs' are equated with Arabic imperfect forms 'btuHki', 'btu19ab', and 'bikallof' respectively.

Before concluding these comments it should be mentioned that while some of the mistakes quoted on this and the previous page could occur in English (with a different punctuation in writing, and with appropriate junctural and intonational features in speaking), (cf. 'She corrected them, the teacher', 'He went, your friend', which may be variant forms of 'The teacher did correct them', and 'Your friend did go', i.e. in contradiction of a negative declaration) the fact remains that a conflict is involved between English and Arabic, and the mistakes quoted are more of a reflection of the conflict involved than a conscious choice on the part of the Arabic speaker between two alternative forms of English.

Type II

Sentences of this type may be represented as follows:

$$N - V^S \text{ (1) Adj.}$$

where a nominal and a verbal, the latter belonging to a closed sub-class of verbs which may be termed 'stative verbs', are linked in terms of number, and are followed by an adjectival (a word or expanded form which occupies a position typically occupied by adjectives ⁽²⁾). The most frequent verbs occurring in the verbal position of this sentence-type are: seem, look, turn, sound, become, grow, ring, remain, appear, smell. Examples are:

He looked anxious
 It tastes good
 The children grew troublesome
 The story rang true
 The soup tastes good

Sentences of this type are distinguished from sentences of type I in that they have three basic elements as opposed to two elements in sentences of type I. In other words the adjectival element occurring in the third place is an essential constituent of this type of sentence, and not an adjunct. Cf.

(1) V^S symbolizes a stative verb.

(2) See pp. 153 ff.

Birds sing
It hurts

with

⊙ He became
⊙ It seemed

Moreover, stative verbs are established on the basis of their occurrence with adjectival forms, in contrast with other (non-stative) verbs which are not followed by adjectival forms, adverbial forms being possible adjunctival forms occurring post-verbally in other sentence-types (cf. They arrived suddenly)

Arabic has a partially comparable sentence-type in which a nominal and a verbal agree in terms of number and gender and are followed by an adjectival. The difference between English and Arabic concerns the membership of the verbs that can occur in the verbal position of this sentence-type. Thus the English and the Arabic types are comparable only in the sense that the constituents of each type are referable to what are deemed to be comparable word classes, though the distribution of the members of these word classes is in contrast at variance in other respects in the two languages and has to be considered separately. Examples are:

xaaled bu?i GaDbaan
(Khaled remained angry)

lbadle Tul9et dayy?a
(the suit turned out tight)

SSuura bayyanet waadHa
(the picture appeared clear)

TTa?s Saar baared
(the weather became cold)

English sentences of this type offer no problems to speakers of Arabic in general; difficulties, however, arise when the positionally free variation of the elements of comparable sentences in Arabic ' is transferred to English. Thus the above examples can appear with the subject in final position, e.g.

bu?i GaDbaan xaaled
Tul9et dayy?a lbadle
bayyanet waadHa SSuura
Saar daafi TTa?s

This positionally free variation in Arabic accounts for the following mistakes:

- ⊙ Appeared beautiful the scene.
- ⊙ He became angry my father.
- ⊙ They remained silent the students.

The last sentences reflect also the same difficulty as that discussed on pp 19-20 Cf. ⊙ He went your friend.

Moreover, since the subject can precede the verbal in all cases, the last Arabic examples are susceptible to the following arrangement, in which the subject follows the verb:

bu?i xaaled GaDbaan
 Tul9et ulbadle dayy?a
 bayyanet uSSuura waadHa
 Saar uTTa?s daafi

The following mistakes can be readily accounted for in the light of the order of the Arabic elements in the above sentences:

- @ Remained my husband late till midnight
- @ Became the weather hot in the afternoon
- @ Became all the people educated and civilized.

Sub-type II (a)

A sub-type of English Type II-sentences may be recognised and symbolised thus:

$$N - V^S N$$

In this sub-type the verbal position is filled by fewer verbs than in sentences of Type II, become, remain, seem, look, grow, being almost the only verbs occurring in this frame. The third position in this sub-type is occupied by a noun, in contrast with the adjective of Type II. Examples are:

The partners remained friends.
 The milk became cheese.
 The boy looked a fool.

Here again Arabic has a comparable sub-type where a nominal and a verbal are linked by agreement in number and gender, and are followed by a noun of the same number and gender as the first nominal. Examples are:

?axi bu?i m9allem suntecn
 (My brother remained a teacher for two years)

rufa?ati Saaru wuzara
 (My friends have become ministers)

wlaadha Tul9u dakaatra
 (Her sons turned out to be doctors)

The same positional variation observed in sentences comparable with English sentences of Type II is again noticeable here. Thus the above examples are subject to two further possibilities of arrangement:

1. bu?i m9allem ?axi suntecn
 Saaru wuzara rufa?ati
 Tul9u dakaatra wlaadha

2. bu?i ?axi m9allem suntecn
 Saaru rufa?ati wuzara
 Tul9u wlaadha dakaatra

The following mistakes can be accounted for in the light of the possible arrangements of Arabic sentences of the above type:

- ⊗ They remained poor the people of the country
- ⊗ Became the food cold
- ⊗ Became Taha Hussein a great writer

While the first of these examples is just possible in English (with a different punctuation in writing), the same remarks as those mentioned on p. 10 apply here, i.e. the example reflects a transfer of Arabic structural possibilities in the matter of the relative position of the subject and the verb

as well as the equating of the verbal and pronominal forms in English with the verbal forms in Arabic.

Type III

The third English sentence-type comprises a nominal and a verbal linked by agreement in number and followed by another nominal or pronominal which need not agree with them in respect of number. This sentence-type can be represented as follows:

$$N - V^t N$$

where V^t represents a transitive verb definable in terms of its total scatter, e.g. in passive as well as by active forms.

(cf. 'He wrote a poem' 'A poem was written by him'
'He became a man' 'A man was become by him')

The nominal occurring in third place is commonly referred to as object or complement. Examples are:

The correspondent punched a policeman
The president saw the report
The explanation puzzled us

This sentence-type is matched by a comparable type in Arabic where a nominal and a verbal linked together by agreement in number and gender are followed by a nominal or ^a pronominal suffix which do not agree with them. This type may be symbolized thus:

$$n - vt n$$

Examples are:

luʔsuud byaaklu laḥum
(Lions eat meat)

ʔana bulʕab tenis
(I play tennis)

xaaled Darabni
(Khaled hit me)

English sentences of Type III offer no problems to the native speaker of Arabic, but mistakes in English have been observed and are once again explicable in terms of the different possibilities of arrangement of the constituent elements of sentences of this type in the two languages. Thus if in the above Arabic sentence-type we call the nominal in the first position n^1 and the nominal in the third position n^2 , we can have the following possible arrangements:

1. $n^1 \leftrightarrow v^t \quad n^2$ (luʔsuud byaaklu laḥum)
2. $v^t \quad n^2 \quad n^1$ (byaaklu laḥum luʔsuud)
3. $v^t \leftrightarrow n^1 \quad n^2$ (byaaklu luʔsuud laḥum)
4. $n^2 \quad v^t + \text{prs.} \quad n^1$ (llaḥum byaaklu-u luʔsuud)
5. $n^2 \quad n^1 \quad v^t + \text{prs.}$ (llaḥum luʔsuud byaaklu-u)

In Arabic, the order of the elements in 1. is freely variant with that of 2 and 3. On the other hand, although there is in English a comparable order to that in 2 (cf. 'She corrected them, the teacher'), we have here a case of difference

of sentence-type and not a case of free variation within the same type as in Arabic. ⁽¹⁾ Moreover, no order similar to that in 3 is possible in modern English. Thus we cannot have:

⊗ Eat the lions meat.

It is in the light of the positional differences in English and Arabic sentences of the type in question that the following mistakes should be seen:

Mistakes reflecting pattern 2 (1)

- ⊗ They play football my friends
- ⊗ They drink milk my children.
- ⊗ Explained the lesson the teacher.

Mistakes reflecting pattern 3 (1)

- ⊗ She speaks my wife English
- ⊗ Wrote Taha Husein many books
- ⊗ Examined the teacher all the students

Patterns 4 and 5, where agreement operates between n^2 and the pronominal suffix on the one hand, and between n^1 and v^t on the other, are not matched by comparable patterns in English, and this fact may explain the following attested mistakes:

- ⊗ The car bought it my father.
- ⊗ The milk the good boys drink it every day.

(1) See p. 20

Here again it should be pointed out that while English may have a more or less comparable pattern (cf. 'The car, my father bought, but the boat, he hired), the mistakes point to a basic difference between English and Arabic and to the transfer of Arabic characteristics to English, notably the use of a pronominal suffix referable to n^2 . The above quoted mistakes, thus, reflect the Arabic patterns of:

ssayyaara ṣṭaraa-ha ?abi
 lḤaliib luwlaad lummaaḥ byuṣṣrabu-u kul yoon.

Type IV ✓

Sentences of Type IV consist of a nominal linked to a member of a sub-class of verbs which may be termed 'Doubly transitive' verbs and followed by two other nominals. The formula of pattern IV is

$$N - V^{d.t.} N^1 N^2$$

where $V^{d.t.}$ represents a doubly transitive verb, i.e., a verb occurring in this frame; N^1 is what is called an 'indirect object' and N^2 a 'direct object' in traditional terminology.

Examples are:

My friend taught his son French
 Mother gave me a present
 They sent him a ticket
 Henry told his children a story
 John asked me a question

N^1 and N^2 are generally distinguished by their relative order, N^1 normally preceding. When N^2 precedes, however, N^1 is preceded by 'to'. Cf.

My friend taught his son French
 Henry told his children a story
 and
 My friend taught French to his son
 Henry told a story to his children

Arabic has a comparable sentence-type in which a nominal and a verbal belonging to a sub-class of verbs which may also be termed 'doubly transitive' are followed by two nominals. This Arabic sentence-type may be given the formula

$$n - v^{d.t.} n^1 n^2$$

Examples are:

waa?el 9a?a ?ummo warde
 (Wael gave his mother a rose)

?awi 9allamni l?adah
 (My father taught me good manners)

l?ustaa? sa?al uttulmiiz su?aal
 (The teacher asked the pupil a question)

It is interesting to notice the comparable behaviour of N^1 and n^1 in the two languages when N^2 and n^2 precede them. Cf.

My mother gave a present to my brother
 ?ummi 9a?et hdiyye la ?axi

where both N^1 and n^1 are preceded by particles ('to' in English

and 'la' in Arabic). However, other arrangements having no counterparts in English are possible in Arabic. Thus the last example may appear as follows:

1. ?ummi 9aTut-o hdiyye (n²) la?axi (n¹)
2. ?ummi 9aTut-o la?axi (n¹) hdiyye (n²)
3. 9aTut-o ?ummi hdiyye (n²) la?axi (n¹)

In 1 the verb is followed by a pronominal suffix 'o' referable to n¹. This use of pronominal suffixes is not matched in comparable contexts in English, and constitutes a potential conflict between English and Arabic. Transfer of Arabic patterning to English explains attested mistakes of the following type:

- ⊗ I bought her a dress to my mother for her birthday.
- ⊗ The students ask them questions to the teachers.
- ⊗ He sent her a telegram to his wife.

In 2 the particle 'la' preceded n¹ even when the latter preceded n². In other words, while a particle precedes n¹ in English only when n² precedes, the particle in Arabic can precede n¹ whether n² precedes or follows. Herein lies another potential conflict between English and Arabic, and transfer of Arabic practice often leads to mistakes like the following:

- ⊗ The teacher set them to the students difficult questions.
- ⊗ Dr. Cook gave them to the fourth year students an extra lecture.
- ⊗ Sami bought her to his fiancé a beautiful ring.

In 5 we have a familiar feature of Arabic word order where the verb precedes its subject. Potential conflict in this area has already been exemplified in attested mistakes occurring in sentences of Types I, II, and III. Attested mistakes reflecting this same feature in sentences of type IV include:

- Q He gave them the teacher a choice of three questions.
- Q Send me my family many things by post.
- Q They teach us our teachers many things.

Type V

Sentences of this type have the same constituents as sentences of Type IV, the difference being that the second and third nominals, unlike those in sentences of Type IV, are of the same number (are substitutable by the same pronouns). The verbals occurring in the verbal position of this sentence-type belong to a special sub-class which may be called 'factitive verbs' and which may be symbolized thus: 'V^f'. The whole pattern may be formulated as follows:

$$N - V^f N^a N^a$$

where the use of the same superscript 'a' is intended to indicate that the two nouns are substitutable by the same pronoun(in notional terms, the two nouns refer to the same person).

This sentence-type offers no difficulty in general since there is a comparable type in Arabic. Cf.

<u>English</u>	<u>Arabic</u>
1. We elected Albert president	nuHna ntaxabna saliim ra?iis
2. John thought my brother a fool	Hasan Hassab ?axi ?ajdab
3. The teacher made Peter a pianist	l?ustanz saawa xaaled 9anzef byaano (1)
4. They consider the thief a coward	(hunne) byu9tubru lHaraami jabaan

It must be noted that while all the above examples share the general characteristic of sentences of Type V, 2 and 4 both in English and Arabic can be shown to be basically different from 1 and 3. Thus we may expand 2 and 4 as follows:

John thought that my brother was a fool
They consider that the thief is a coward

but corresponding expansions of 1 and 3 are inadmissible: cf.

⊙ We elected that Albert was president
(cf. We elected Albert as president)

⊙The teacher made that Peter was a pianist
(cf. The teacher made a pianist of Peter)

Similarly in Arabic, we can have:

Hasan Hassab ?unno ?axi ?ajdab
(hunne) byu9tubru ?unno lHaraami jabaan

(1) It is a common feature of Arabic that the verb is used without a pronoun subject. Since verbal forms are variable in terms of person, gender, and number, no ambiguity as to ..//..

but not:

- ③ nuḥna ntaxabna ?unno salim ra?iis
 ④ l?ustaz saawa ?unno xaaled 9aazef byaano

In other words, sentences 2 and 4 can be expanded into complex sentences consisting of a main clause and a subordinate object noun clause, both in English and Arabic. One variation of Type V in both English and Arabic has an adjective in place of the third nominal, e.g.

<u>English</u>	<u>Arabic</u>
They consider him clever (cf. they consider him to be clever)	(hunne) byuḡtubruu jabaan
He thought her rich	(huwwe) Hassabha Ganiyye

A potential conflict between English and Arabic sentences of this type arises from the fact that the Arabic sentences, unlike the corresponding English ones, are freely variant with other sentences in which the verbal is associated with a pronominal suffix referable to the second nominal, in which case the latter is preceded by the particle 'la' and may follow or precede the nominal in the third (final) position. Cf.

lwaziir 9ayyan xaaled mfatteš
 (The minister appointed Khaled inspector)

with

lwaziir 9ayyan-o mfatteš la xaaled
 lwaziir 9ayyan-o la xaaled mfatteš

cont. the subject of the verb is likely to arise. The use of a pronoun subject implies a kind of 'highlighting' of this element.

When transferred to English, the pattern of the last sentences leads to the following mistakes:

- ① They elected him president to my friend
 ② They appointed him to her son a teacher⁽¹⁾

reflecting Arabic

ntaxabu-u ra?iis la rfii?i
 9ayyanu-u la ?ubunha m9allem

All the types of English sentences considered so far have been found to correspond to what we have called 'Verbal Sentences' in Arabic. The following English sentence-types, which will be divided into three sub-types, correspond, in general, to 'Nominal Sentences' in Arabic.

Type VI

Sentences of Type VI are made up of a nominal linked to a form of the verb 'to be' by agreement in terms of person and number, and followed by a nominal, or an adjectival, or an adverbial of time or place in third position. Sentences of this type may be represented thus:

N - be N/Adj./Adv.

(1) Cf. English 'They appointed (John) secretary to my father' 'They appointed him teacher to her son', where a different order of grammatical relationship obtains between the particle 'to' and the noun preceding it.

and may be divided into three sub-types according to whether the third element is a nominal (sub-type A), an adjectival (sub-type B), or an adverbial (sub-type C).

Examples of sub-type A

Helen is my friend
 My father was a lawyer
 These men are foreigners

Examples of sub-type B

The children were naughty
 They are angry
 Spring is beautiful

Examples of sub-type C

The party is here
 The children are outside
 The village is nearby.

Sentences of this type correspond to Arabic 'Nominal Sentences'. In these sentences a nominal colligates with a nominal (sub-type a), or an adjectival (sub-type b), or an adverbial (sub-type c) (see p. 6). Examples are:

Sub-type a

waaʔel baʔal
 (Wael is a hero)

maysa ʔaniira
 (Maise is a princess)

wlaadna malaayke
 (Our children are angels)

Sub-type b

?ustaazna laTiif
(Our teacher is kind)

l?akul suxun
(The food is hot)

lbadle beoDa
(The suit is white)

Sub-type c

ssayyaara barra
(The car is outside)

DDyuuf bu jjnoeno
(The guests are in the garden)

lHafle bukra
(The party is tomorrow)

A comparison between English sentences of Type VI and what are deemed comparable sentences in Arabic reveals a basic difference between the two within the framework of the type. Thus while English sentences are made up of three structural elements: a nominal (the subject), the so-called 'copula' (predicator), and the nominal, adjectival, or adverbial (the complements), corresponding Arabic sentences consist of two structural elements: a nominal (the subject) and another nominal, adjectival, or adverbial (the predicates), there being no form corresponding to the copulative verb 'to be' in English.

In view of the structural difference involved between English sentences of Type VI and their Arabic counterparts, it is immediately apparent that we have here a basic conflict

between the two languages, reflected by an abundance of attested mistakes in which the copula has been wrongly omitted.

Some of these mistakes are:

- ⓐ Man a complicated mixture
- ⓑ The most important thing its discipline
- ⓒ Its magnificence in its poetry
- ⓓ Keats afraid of death
- ⓔ Your mother upstairs

Here again it should be pointed out that in some of the above mistakes the form of words qua sequence is a possibility (cf. 'Keats, afraid of death, wrote this poem'; 'I saw your mother upstairs', etc). The point to be made, however, is that within the framework of the units compared (the sentences) in English and Arabic, we have a structural difference, and the mistakes quoted are a reflection of this difference. Thus the above mistakes reflect Arabic:

l?unsaan xaliit mu9aqqad
 ?ahamm šii niZaamha
 raw9ito fii š19ro
 Keats xaayef mun ulmoot
 ?ummak foo?

It has been pointed out (p.9) that the subject can precede or follow the predicate in Arabic sentences. Thus the examples on page can appear thus:

baTal waa?el
 laTiif ?ustaazna
 barra ssayyaara

Since this potential flexibility is not matched in comparable English sentences, we have a potential conflict confirmed by mistakes of the following type:

- (1)
 @ A teacher my brother
 @ Interesting the book
 @ With me the pen

which reflect Arabic

m9allen ?axi
 mumte9 luktaab
 ma9i l?alan

It is obvious that mistakes of the last type involve two points of conflict: omission of the copula, and reversal of the position of the subject.

Type VII

Type VII is a high frequency pattern in English and corresponds in general to fii sentences in Arabic (see p.11). Sentences of this type can be derived from sentences of Type VI, sub-type C, in the following way:

(1) Here again it should be pointed out that this word sequence is possible in English. Cf. 'A teacher? My brother?' (... surely you don't mean it), (incredulity) in response to 'Your brother 's-a teacher, isn't he?'. Nevertheless the context in which the mistakes in question were used does not in any case warrant this sequence (Notice also the punctuation used) and the fact remains that these mistakes reflect a basic difference between English and Arabic syntax.

'N be Adv.' becomes 'There be N Adv.'

Examples are:

A man is here
Some men are outside
A baby is in the room
Many letters are on the
table

There is a man here
There are some men outside
There is a baby in the room
There are many letters on the
table

Comparison may be made, in terms of reversibility, between 'There be ...' sentences and 'It be' sentences of the type 'It is early closing today' (cf. 'Today is early closing'). 'There be...' sentences very commonly contain adverbial complements of place and it seems in general reasonable to consider 'there' in this context -distinct as it is from adverbial 'there' - as belonging to the general category of deictics. Thus in certain contexts - those, for example, of approval and disapproval - 'there' varies freely with the demonstrative 'that', cf. 'There's/That's a good boy', 'There's/That's planning for you'. But this area of the language is one in which a good deal more research is necessary.

The subject occurring in sentences of this type is usually
(1)
a noun and not a personal pronoun. Moreover, indefinite determiners of the subject like a, an, no, some, (see pp. 417) are more

(1) Cf. 'There's only you'

common than the definite determiners ⁽¹⁾ (see pp. 141ff) like: the, this, that. Finally, the verb 'to be' is the most common verb in sentences of this type, ⁽²⁾ the relationship between it and the noun in the sentence being exactly the same as that in sentences of Type VI (in standard English, the forms 'is' or 'was' occur if the noun is singular; 'are', 'were' occur if the noun is plural).

Sentences of Type VII in English correspond to fii sentences in Arabic, which are made up of 'fii' and an indefinite nominal or a particle combined with a pronominal suffix and followed by an indefinite nominal.

Comparability between sentences of Type VII in English and fii sentences in Arabic is justified on the following grounds:

1. Just as sentences of Type VII can be derived from sentences of Type VI in English, so are fii sentences in Arabic derivable from nominal sentences (sub-type c), which were found to correspond to sentences of Type VI (sub-type C) in English.

(1) Cf. (Who can I invite to my party?) Well, there's always the milkman.

(2) Cf. 'There came a great spider'

2. Parallel to the indefinite determiners which occur before the noun in English sentences of Type VII, *fii* in Arabic acts as a kind of indefinite article mutually exclusive with the definite article. Cf.

ssayyaara barra
(The car is outside)
with
fii sayyaara barra (1)
(There's a car outside)

The difference between English sentences and their Arabic counterparts lies in the absence of forms corresponding to the copula in Arabic, when the verbal forms in English are 'is', 'are'. But when English has the forms 'was', 'were', the verbal 'kaan' is used in Arabic, and in such cases the English sentence-type 'There V N Adv.' would correspond to Arabic '*fii* kaan n adv.' Examples are:

fii kaan wlaad ktir bu jjneene
(There were many children in the garden)

fii kaan Guŕriin Deef bu lHafle
(There were twenty guests at the party)

The last two examples may be differently arranged in that 'kaan' can precede '*fii*', i.e.

(1) Comparability is further reinforced by the fact that just as it is possible in English to use a definite determiner (see footnote (1) in the preceding page; cf. also 'There's the milkman to be paid, the butcher, and the grocer') with the noun, the definite article can be used with the noun in Arabic comparable contexts (cf. '*fii* lHallaab laazem nudfa9lo, w ullaHHaan, w ulba??aal')

kaan fii wlaad ktiiir bu jjnoono
 kaan fii 9uŕriin Deof bu lHaflo

Herein lies a potential conflict, since the positional free variation of 'kaan' when transferred to English would result in mistakes of the following type:

- ⓐ Yesterday was there much cold.
- ⓑ Last winter were there good films in the cinema

which reflect Arabic

mbaaroh kaan fii bard ktiiir
 ššutwiyye lMaadye kaan fii ?aflaam mniHa bu ssinema

The above sentence types have been selected to the exclusion of others for contrastive purposes. Other sentence types, which are not of the subject-predicate kind, such as Hill's 'single-construction sentences'⁽¹⁾, e.g. 'Oh ! ', or the so-called 'equational type', e.g. 'Cold hands, warm heart', and which would have to be included in a separate treatment of English or Arabic, have been left out since they appear to call for no contrastive statement to be made about them.

(1) Op. cit., p.347.

To sum up the sentence types in English and Arabic, it has been found that English sentences of Type I through V correspond to a major group of sentences in Arabic, Verbal Sentences. These sentence types consisted of a nominal subject linked to a verbal, which may be followed by other forms or not. The nominal, between which and the verbal patterns of agreement are observable and statable in terms of person and number (in English) and in terms of number, person, and gender (in Arabic) is called 'the subject'. The verbal is called 'the predicate' when it is not followed by other forms (as in sentences of Type I), and 'the predicator' when followed by other elements, which are called 'complements' (sentences of Type II through V). In all these types the basic difference between English and Arabic relates to the relatively fixed order of the elements in English as opposed to considerable flexibility in the order of corresponding Arabic elements.

Sentences of Type VI were found to correspond to Nominal Sentences in Arabic. In addition to the feature of flexible word order in Arabic sentences of this group, a major difference between English sentences of the type and their Arabic counterparts lies in the absence of a form corresponding to the copula in English.

Finally sentences of Type VII were found to correspond to fii Sentences in Arabic, the correspondence being brought out

by the fact that English sentences of this type are derivable from sentences of Type VI, in the same way as corresponding Arabic sentences are derivable from those corresponding to English sentences of Type VI.

(2)

A. Negative Sentences

a) Negative Sentences in English

Negative sentences in English are mostly characterized by the use of a negative particle 'not' in association with the same class of auxiliary verbs (sometimes termed 'operators' or anomalous finites) that characterize interrogative sentences. Fusion between the 'operator' and the postfixed particle is such that the recognition of a separate negative conjugation in English is amply justified. Such a solution avoids the usual tortuous definition by which it is sought to derive, say, /wəʊnt/ from /wɪl/, /ɑ:nt/ from /zɪz/, /ɑ:nt/ in the tag 'aren't I' from /zəm/, etc. However, it is deemed appropriate from a contrastive point of view to adopt this solution, since we are going to consider negative sentences as transforms of affirmative-declarative sentences in both English and Arabic.⁽¹⁾

(1) As mentioned above, we are concerned here with negative sentences that are derivable from affirmative-declarative sentences. Otherwise, in a fuller treatment of English negation, one should envisage the treatment, inter alia, of those interesting sentences in which 'not' is excluded by the presence of a class of quasi-negative elements, e.g. 'seldom', 'hardly'. Cf. 'He seldom went', '©He didn't seldom go', but cf. 'He seldom didn't go' (i.e. he nearly always went). Similarly, examples like exclamatory 'Isn't it nice !', which have no corresponding affirmative forms, are excluded in this context.

The operators in question are: shall, should, will, would,
 can, could, may, might, must, ought to, (need, dare, used to)⁽¹⁾;
 have, has, had, am, are, is, was, were.

Affirmative-declarative sentences not containing any of the auxiliaries mentioned above can be transformed into negative-declarative sentences by making use of the special operator 'do' and its alternant forms, in association with the negative particle, 'do' carrying the marks of person and tense and the lexical verb appearing in the infinitival form. Examples are:

<u>Affirmative-declarative</u>	<u>Negative-declarative</u>
A. He can speak French fluently	He can't speak French fluently
They might come early	They might not come early
You must see them now	You must not see them now
B. They write properly	They don't write properly
Henry walks fast	Henry doesn't walk fast
They lost the match	They didn't lose the match

(1) These forms are not fully integrated and are defective in various degrees for various speakers. Cf. 'You need not come' 'You don't need to come'; '@ You don't may come'. Cf. also 'He wouldn't dare' '@ You wouldn't can'.

b) Arabic Negative Sentences

Negative sentences in Arabic are characterised by a negative particle which appears characteristically before the predicate in Verbal and Nominal Sentences, and hence serves to identify them; in fii and particle sentences the negative particle occupies initial position.

The shape of the negative particle varies with the sentence-type. Thus in Nominal Sentences it appears as 'muu' before the predicate whether this precedes or follows the subject. Examples are:

Affirmative-declarative

l?ustaaZ laTiif
(the teacher is kind)

mhandes ?ubni
(my son is an engineer)

l9aSafiir 9a lGuSun
(the sparrows are on the branch)

barra luwlaad
(the children are outside)

Negative-declarative

l?ustaaZ muu laTiif
(the teacher is not kind)

muu mhandes ?ubni
(my son is not an engineer)

l9aSafiir muu 9a lGuSun
(the sparrows are not on the branch)

muu barra luwlaad
(the children are not outside)

In Verbal Sentences, the particle appears in the form of 'maa' before the predicate, whether the latter comprises a single verb or a verb phrase made up of one or more auxiliaries followed by a lexical verb. Examples are:

Affirmative-declarative

?axi bidaxxen ktiir
(my brother smokes a lot)

luwlaad faa?u bakkiir
(the children got up early)

ruje9 ydaxxen Hasan
(Hassan started smoking again)

samiira ballašet tGanni
(Samira started singing)

lmudiir Dall yHaawel yu?un9o
(the director kept trying to convince him)

Negative-declarative

?axi maa bidaxxen ktiir
(my brother doesn't smoke a lot)

luwlaad maa faa?u bakkiir
(the children didn't get up early)

maa ruje9 ydaxxen Hasan
(Hassan didn't start smoking again)

samiira maa ballašet tGanni
(Samira didn't start singing)

lmudiir maa Dall yHaawel yu?un9o
(the director didn't keep trying to convince him)

The negative form of verbal sentences in which the verbal has the form of a participle (see pp.322) or of a verb in the imperfect precede by '9am' (see pp.255) is variously characterised by 'maa' alone or, more commonly, by 'maa' compounded with a pronominal suffix (1) between which and the verb or participle concord is operative in terms of person, number, and gender, e.g.

?ana raayeH
(I am going)

?ana maa-l-i raayeH
(I am not going)

?unti raayHa
(you (fem. sing.) are going)

?unti maa-l-ek raayHa
(you are not going)

wlaadi 9am yudursu
(my children are studying)

wlaadi maa-l-on 9am yudursu
(my children are not studying)

(1) It should be stated that 'maa' is compounded not just with a pronominal suffix but also with what may be considered a kind of infix having the shape of 'l', which serves to mark maa-l-i, maa-l-ek, maa-l-ak, maa-l-a, maa-l-o, maa-l-na, maa-l-kon, maa-l-on, as an independent series of forms.

In fli and particle sentences the negative particle is 'maa', which appears in initial position, e.g.

Affirmative-declarative

fli ?ulak maktuub
(there is a letter for you)

9andi Dyuuf lyoom
(I have guests today)

Negative-declarative

maa fli ?ulak maktuub
(there is no letter for
you) (1)

maa 9andi Dyuuf lyoom
(I have no guests today)

A further shape of the negative particle is 'laa'. This appears in the negative counterparts of sentences which contain a verb in the imperative form. In such sentences 'laa' precedes the verb, which appears in the imperfect form, e.g.

ktooob
(you (masc. sing.) write

ktubi
(you fem. sing.) write

ktubu
(you plural) write

laa tuktoob
(don't write)

laa tuktubi
(don't write)

laa tuktbu
(don't write)

- (1) Cf. 'maa 9andi Dyuuf lyoom' (I have no guests to-day) with 'muu 9andi DDyuuf lyoom' (The guests are not (staying) with me to-day). The first is the negative counterpart of a particle sentence; the second is the negative counterpart of a nominal sentence, namely, '9andi DDyuuf lyoom' (The guests are (staying) with me to-day) where the predicate '9andi' precedes the subject 'DDyuuf' (see pp. 12)
- (2) The imperative form is one in a system of verb forms which comprises the perfect, imperfect, and imperative sub-systems. It is distinguished in respect of affixal shape and in the number of forms that constitute its formal scatter, since unlike other forms, it is not characterised by distinctions of person. (See pp. 112 ff.)
- (3) See pp. 112 ff.

Contrastive implications

In the light of the above facts of English and Arabic negative sentences it is possible to predict the problems involved in English negative sentences for speakers of Arabic. Such prediction is corroborated by the attested mistakes made by speakers of Arabic.

Some of the mistakes quoted will be found to conflict with others. The important thing to be pointed out is that each type of mistake quoted reflects a special point of conflict. Moreover, some of the mistakes quoted do not relate so much to negation as to the wrong association of the morphemes of person and tense with the lexical verb rather than with the operator. Nevertheless, it has been found appropriate to include them in this context in order to complete the picture of the area of conflict between negative sentences in the two languages.

1. Although this seems a simple matter, the fact remains that the positional difference of the negative particles in the two languages, in English after, in Arabic before the verb, constitutes a conflict reflected by mistakes of the following type:

- @ The women not took their rights.
- @ My opinion not agree with his.
- @ It not sufficed in those days...

which reflect Arabic

nnuswaan maa ?axadu H?uu?on
 ra?yi maa byuttufe? ma9 ra?yo
 maa kaffa bi hadiik ul?ayyaam

2. Since Arabic makes use of the particle 'maa' whatever the composition of the verbal phrase, i.e. with or without auxiliaries, whereas in English the use of the (dummy) operator 'do' (in the absence of other auxiliaries in the verbal phrase) as the carrier of negation, as well as person and tense marks, is essential, the generalised application of the particle 'not', not only to the operators, but also to lexical verbs in English, results in the following attested mistakes:

- (1)
 @ I speak not to him
 @ He wrote not to me since he left
 @ I understand not English poetry.
- (2)

3. The following mistakes reflect an indirect conflict: use of the operator 'do' even when the verbal phrase contains another auxiliary:

- @ I do not can come now.
 @ He does not must go to work to-day.
 @ The children do not may play in the garden.

(1) Cf., however, 'They toil not, neither do they spin' in religious English.

(2) Cf., however, 'They wrote not to me but to him'.

4. The mistakes quoted below do not relate so much to negation as to the wrong association of the morphemes of person and tense with the lexical verb rather than with the operator.

- ⓐ She do not studies all the year
- ⓑ We did not went with them
- ⓒ I do not saw him since yesterday(sic)

The other extreme is reached when both the auxiliary 'do' and the lexical verb are associated with the morphemes of person and tense. Examples of such mistakes include:

- ⓐ She does not learns her lessons.
- ⓑ We did not heard them when they came
- ⓒ Loulou does not listens to her mother.

5. Mistakes as the following:

- ⓐ She asked him to don't put on the light
- ⓑ Their father told them to don't play in the sun

are accounted for by the transfer of the native pattern of negation applicable in imperative sentences and involving the use of the particle 'laa' before the verb in both so-called 'direct' and 'reported' speech. For whereas English has 'don't' in direct speech and 'not to + infinitive' in reported speech, Arabic has 'laa' + imperfect form in both. Cf.

ArabicEnglishDirect Speech:

?abuuhon ?allon : "laa tul9abu
bu ššams."

Their father said to them:
"don't play in the sun."

Reported Speech:

?abuuhon ?allon laa yul9abu
bu ššams.

@Their father told them
to don't play in the sun
(sc... not to play...)

B. Interrogative Sentences

a) Interrogative Sentences in English

The operators have been called the cornerstone of English predication and their use characterizes not only the negative but also the interrogative shape of most English sentences. It is to be anticipated, therefore, that native users of Arabic are likely to encounter difficulties similar to those they experience in relation to negative sentences. But first a rapid sketch of interrogative sentences and their Arabic counterparts is necessary.

(1)

Apart from certain contexts front shifting of a verb in relation to its accompanying noun or pronoun is limited to the 'operators' and principally to their interrogative use. The following examples show the parallelism in the use of the operators between negative and interrogative sentences:

Affirmative-declarative

They can wait for us
He will be able to come
You may smoke now
They speak French
He gets up early
She liked him

Negative-declarative

They can't wait for us
He won't be able to come
You may not smoke now
They don't speak French
He doesn't get up early
She didn't like him

(1) 1. Deictic or motive contexts as 'Away went their legs from under them', 'There goes the ball', etc. 2. in literary interpolations as 'said he', 'wrote John', etc. 3. in the case of predicative 'be' in, say, 'Is John right?' 4. in literary styles after sentence-initial elements with negative or restrictive meaning like (never, nor, with, seldom, etc.) as in 'Seldom have I seen such a sight', 'Nor does John like
.../...

Part I : Sentence-Structure

Affirmative-interrogative

Can they wait for us ?
 Will he be able to come ?
 May you smoke now ?
 Do they speak French ?
 Does he get up early ?
 Did she like him ?

Negative-interrogative

Can't they wait for us ?
 Won't he be able to come ?
 May you not smoke now ?
 Don't they speak French ?
 Doesn't he get up early ?
 Didn't she like him ?

As ~~it~~ is the case with negative sentences, sentences not containing any of the auxiliaries mentioned on page 46 can be transformed into interrogative sentences by making use of the operator 'do', which appears before the noun or pronoun subject, carrying the marks of person and tense and the lexical verb appearing in its infinitival form.

b) Interrogative Sentences in Arabic

In Arabic, interrogative sentences not containing specific interrogative particles frequently differ from affirmative sentences only in respect of intonation features, there being no 'reversal' or auxiliaries involved as in the case of English interrogative sentences. Moreover, all interrogative sentences can potentially be terminated by 'šii'. Examples are:

lʔakul jaahez (šii) ?
 (Is the food ready ?)

cont. it' 5. a) 'informally' after 'so' as in 'so can Joe', 'so will I'; b) in the conditional inversion of formal style, as in 'Had I known the answer to your question, I would have told you'.

ttaSalt fiihon šii ?
 (Have you got in touch with them ?)

fii ma9ak maSaari šii ?
 (Have you any money ?)

Contrastive implications

The divergence between English and Arabic in respect of interrogative sentences constitutes a serious conflict and will cause difficulties for the native speaker of Arabic, akin to those encountered in connection with negative sentences. Attested mistakes point to two different types. The first correspond to those mistakes classified in connection with negative sentences under (2, 3, 4) and relate to misuse of the operators. The second reflect a transfer to English of Arabic interrogative patterns.

Under the first type we have the following mistakes:

1. Those which result from a failure to use the operator 'do', as in:
 - @ Speak you seriously ?
 - @ Saw they the picture ?
2. Those which result from a failure to appreciate the fact that the use of one finite verb excludes the use of another, and that 'can', 'must' and the rest of the operators are exclusively finite forms. Attested mistakes

are:

- @ Do you can come with me to the pictures ?
- @ Do you must leave so early ?

3. Mistakes resulting from the misplacing of inflections

are:

- @ Do he writes clearly ?
- @ Do she slept late ?

4. Conversely, both the auxiliary and lexical verbs are

inflected in:

- @ Did they not posted the invitations ?
- @ Does she takes private lessons ?

While the above types of mistake result from an indirect conflict between English and Arabic, the following types point to a transfer to English of the pattern of interrogative sentences in Arabic which are marked only by intonational features. In the following examples there is neither reversal nor use of an auxiliary but the same word order of the corresponding affirmative sentences:

- @ I may borrow your car ?
- @ You study in the evening ?

C. Questionsa) Questions in English

Questions in English may be considered a sub-class of interrogative sentences on the grounds that they typically evoke an oral response. Interrogative sentences and questions correspond to Fries's class (C) of utterances that are immediately and regularly followed by 'oral' responses only.

" C. There are those - a very large number - in which the oral response consists of a great variety of forms other than (1) the repetition of the utterance and (2) the limited list of words and word-groups that comprise the response to calls. These utterances - those that regularly elicit any of the great range of responses - are questions."⁽¹⁾

While both questions and interrogative sentences evoke oral responses, the former are distinguished from the latter on the following grounds:

1. Unlike interrogative sentences, which begin with an auxiliary, questions typically begin with a question word (who, whom, where, when, etc.)

2. Moreover, the inadmissibility of extensions like '... or not' serves to distinguish questions from interrogative sentences. Cf.

Can he come, or not ?
 @ Who came, or not ?
 @ When did he come, or not ?

(1) Fries, Op. cit., p.45.

3. While interrogative sentences typically expect 'yes', 'no' or one of a limited list of forms such as 'certainly', 'of course', etc. in the answer, questions can be followed by almost any form, though forms following questions generally belong to form classes that are predictable from the question word initiating the question. Cf.

Did he come ?	Yes, no, certainly.
Who came ?	John, George, Mary, my friend
When will he come ?	Now, tomorrow, in a few minutes.

Within sentences classified as questions it is possible to distinguish two major sub-groups:

1. Questions of the first sub-group do not involve any front shifting of auxiliaries, if any, and contain one of the question words (who, what, which) as subject (in the case of 'who' and 'what'), and as adjuncts of the subject (in the case of 'what' and 'which', e.g.

Who won the match ?
What caused the fighting ?
What artist can paint such a picture ?
Which artist painted this picture ?

2. Those of the second sub-group do involve 'inversion' of the finite verb and the subject and contain one of the question words (who, whom, whose, what, where, when, how, etc.), these expecting a form occupying object or adverbial position

in a full answer. Examples are:

Who did you see ? John. (I saw John)
 When will you go ? Tomorrow (I'll go tomorrow)
 How did he do it ? Easily (He did it easily)

While questions of the second sub-group are clearly differentiated from affirmative sentences by question words and features of word order, those of the first sub-group are distinguished only by question words, the same word order, otherwise, being common to both questions and affirmative sentences.

In this context, it seems appropriate to touch on the so-called 'dependent questions', which are characterized by the fact that the question has been downgraded, to use Hill's terminology, ⁽¹⁾ to the status of a sentence element. In such case, the dependent question assumes the form of an affirmative sentence. Cf. sets A and B.

Set A

What did you see ?

When did you leave ?

How can you be so sure ?

Set B

Tell me what you saw

He asked when I left

He wondered how I could be so sure.

(1) Op. cit., ch. 19.

Dependent questions are interesting from a contrastive point of view, since they involve many features, some of which are dealt with under 'Sequence of tenses'⁽¹⁾. In the present context, only the features of word order, and the role of the auxiliaries need concern us as will become apparent below when Arabic questions are discussed.

b) Questions in Arabic

Questions in Arabic may also be considered a sub-class of interrogative sentences, in the sense that both sub-classes evoke an oral response. They differ from interrogative sentences, however, in that they contain question words *min* (who, whom), *šuu* (what), *ween* (where), *?eemta* (when), *kiif* (how) etc., and are parallel to English in that they cannot be followed by extensions like '*... lumma la?*' (or not)

On the other hand they differ from affirmative sentences (again parallel to English) not only in the different kind of response they evoke, but also in the inadmissibility of tags after them. Cf.

ssayyaara wuSlet, maheek ? (The car has arrived, hasn't it ?)
 @ *?eemta wuSlet ussayyaara, maheek ?* (@ When did the car
 arrive, didn't it ?)

(1) See p. 115

A major difference between Arabic and English questions is the fact that the distinction between questions of the first sub-group and those of the second sub-group is not paralleled in Arabic, one group in Arabic corresponding to both sub-groups in English. More specifically, sentences classified as questions in Arabic do not involve the use of auxiliaries or 'shifting' thereof, whether they expect a form operating as subject, object, or adverbial complement in the answer. Examples are:

min Galab ?
(Who won ?)

min šuft ?
(Who did you see ?)

?eemta wšult ?
(When did you arrive ?)

klif saafart ?
(How did you travel ?)

Moreover, the relative order of sentence elements including question words in Arabic is fairly flexible as opposed to a fixed order in English. Cf. the different possibilities of word-order in the following sets of questions, the first set of which expect an object; the second, a subject; and the third, either a subject or an object in the answer (and hence is ambiguous)

Set A. miin as object

- | | |
|--|----------------------|
| 1. miin waa?el Galab ? | { O S V } |
| 2. waa?el miin Galab ? | { S O V } |
| 3. waa?el Galab miin ? | { S V O } |
| 4. Galab miin waa?el ? | { V O S } |
| 5. miin yalli waa?el Galabo ?
(Who did Wael beat ?) | { O yalli S V+prs. } |

Set B. miin as subject

- | | |
|---|-------------------|
| 1. miin Galabo la waa?el ? | { S V+prs. la O } |
| 2. Galabo miin la waa?el ? | { V+prs. S la O } |
| 3. waa?el miin Galabo ? | { O S V+prs. } |
| 4. waa?el Galabo miin ? | { O V+prs. S } |
| 5. miin yalli Galab waa?el ?
(Who beat Wael ?) | { S yalli V O } |

Set C. miin as subject or object

- | | |
|--|------------------------|
| miin Galab waa?el ?
(Who beat Wael ?) | (S V O) or (O V S) |
| or
(Who did Wael beat ?) | |

It will be noticed that miin is object in sentences wherein the verb is not associated with a pronominal suffix, except when the relative 'yalli' occurs (A 5); and is subject in sentences where the verb is associated with a pronominal suffix, except when the relative 'yalli' occurs (B 5); and that miin is subject or object in sentences of the structure: miin + V + N^d. (In sentences of the structure: miin + V + N (where N stands for an indefinite noun) no ambiguity arises since N cannot be subject, e.g. 'miin šaaf walad ?' (Who saw a boy ?)). Finally, it should be pointed out that in sentences wherein miin is subject the object is preceded by the particle 'la' when occurring in final position (B 1 & 2), except when the relative 'yalli' occurs (B5).

The following examples reveal the possibilities of word-order in questions containing other specifically question particles, e.g. ween and ?eemta:

- A.
- | | |
|-----------------------|--------------|
| 1. ween naam waa?el ? | (ween V S) |
| 2. ween waa?el naam ? | (ween S V) |
| 3. waa?el ween naam ? | (S ween V) |
| 4. naam ween waa?el ? | (V ween S) |
| 5. waa?el naam ween ? | (S V ween) |
| 6. naam waa?el ween ? | (V S ween) |
- (Where did Wael sleep ?)
- B.
- | | |
|-------------------------|----------------|
| 1. ?eemta raaH ?abuuk ? | (?eemta V S) |
| 2. ?eemta ?abuuk raaH ? | (?eemta S V) |
| 3. ?abuuk ?eemta raaH ? | (S ?eemta V) |
| 4. raaH ?eemta ?abuuk ? | (V ?eemta S) |
| 5. ?abuuk raaH ?eemta ? | (S V ?eemta) |
| 6. raaH ?abuuk ?eemta ? | (V S ?eemta) |

Contrastive implications

In the light of the above patterns of Arabic questions, it is possible to predict at least three kinds of difficulties the native speaker of Arabic faces in connection with questions in English.

The first kind is similar to that of difficulties encountered in connection with interrogative sentences, notably failure to 'shift' the auxiliary, if any, or failure to use the auxiliary 'do' in the absence of other auxiliaries. Attested mistakes that reveal the first kind of difficulty are the following:

⊗ How we can get to the swimming pool ?

- @ To whom you gave the book ?
- @ Whom you are calling ?
- @ Where he works ?

The second kind is the result of the transfer of the flexible order of elements (subject, verb, question word) in Arabic to English. Attested mistakes of the second kind include:

- @ Your father how much he gave you ?
- @ What the teacher said ?
- @ What bought you your mother ?

The above mistakes actually reflect both kinds since in addition to the wrong word order they omit the auxiliary 'do'.

The third kind of difficulty is related to the different English word order in independent questions and dependent questions. The nature of the difficulty can be appreciated from the following attested mistakes, wherein the pattern of the independent question has been transferred in error to the dependent clause:

- @ He gave me what did he possess.
- @ You may ask what do you want.
- @ He tries to understand how do they think

Cf.

- šuu ?ulut (what did you say ?)
- maa smu9ut suu ?ulut (I didn't hear what you said)

where no distinction is made between dependent and independent questions in Arabic.

D. Emphasisa) The 'Emphatic' verbal periphrasis in English

In addition to the role played by the operators in negative and interrogative sentences, questions, and tags, they have still another important function: to carry the emphatic stress in emphatic sentences. In describing the grammatical characteristics of the auxiliaries, W.F. Twaddell has this to say of their emphatic grammatical role:

"Occurrence as the locus for grammatical stress and pitch signals. Usually the main stress is on the last noun, verb, adjective or adverb. Elsewhere, main stress signals a meaning of contrast, a specific insistence on the stressed word or sentence part as against some situationally possible alternative word or sentence part. But main stress on an auxiliary signals insistence on the truth value (affirmative or negative) of the sentence as a whole, against doubt or disagreement whether expressed or implied by the hearer or anticipated by the speaker as the hearer's probable attitude or reaction."⁽¹⁾

Thus in addition to its role in negative and interrogative sentences, questions, and tags, the operator 'do' is made use of by all verbs (except the auxiliaries) to carry emphatic stress as well as the marks of person and tense. As an illustration, cf. the following sets of non-emphatic and emphatic sentences:

(1) W.F. Twaddell, 'The English Verb Auxiliaries', Brown University Press, (Providence. Rhode Island), 1960.

Non-emphatic

John can play well.
 Mary is going home.
 George has smoked the cigar.

John played well.
 Mary went home.
 George smokes cigars.

Emphatic

John can play well.
 Mary is going home.
 George has smoked the
 cigar.
 John did play well.
 Mary did go home.
 George does smoke cigars.

The emphatic sentences above should be distinguished from the following sentences where the lexical verb receives the emphatic stress and yet the sentence is not classified as an emphatic sentence.

John can write well (but he can't speak)
 John buys cigars (but he doesn't necessarily smoke them)
 I saw John (but I didn't speak to him)

b) Emphasis in Arabic

It is not possible to set up a category of emphatic sentences in Arabic that corresponds to English emphatic sentences as defined above. This does not mean, of course, that Arabic has no way of marking emphasis. Examples of sentences corresponding to emphatic sentences in English are:

?ana ?akiid ŝufto (I did see him)
 9adnaan fu9lan 9ana yalli Hakaa (Adnan did mean what he said)
 walla bu9ta (I did sell it; lit.: by God, I sold it)

in which the Arabic sentences are characterized by the inclusion of the forms '?akiid', 'fu9lan', 'walla'.

Non-emphatic

John can play well.
 Mary is going home.
 George has smoked the cigar.

John played well.
 Mary went home.
 George smokes cigars.

Emphatic

John can play well.
 Mary is going home.
 George has smoked the
 cigar.
 John did play well.
 Mary did go home.
 George does smoke cigars.

The emphatic sentences above should be distinguished from the following sentences where the lexical verb receives the emphatic stress and yet the sentence is not classified as an emphatic sentence.

John can write well (but he can't speak)
 John buys cigars (but he doesn't necessarily smoke them)
 I saw John (but I didn't speak to him)

b) Emphasis in Arabic

It is not possible to set up a category of emphatic sentences in Arabic that corresponds to English emphatic sentences as defined above. This does not mean, of course, that Arabic has no way of marking emphasis. Examples of sentences corresponding to emphatic sentences in English are:

?ana ?akiid ?ufto (I did see him)
 ?adnaan fu9lan ?ana yalli Hakaa (Adnan did mean what he said)
 walla bu9ta (I did sell it; lit.: by God, I sold it)

in which the Arabic sentences are characterized by the inclusion of the forms '?akiid', 'fu9lan', 'walla'.

Examples of contrastive emphasis are:

?ana šufto laaken maa Haakeeto (I saw him but I didn't talk
to him)
?ana ?ult mbaareH muu lyoom (I said 'yesterday' not 'today')

Contrastive implications

In view of the fact that the category of 'emphatic sentences', as defined for English, is non-existent^e in Arabic, at least at the grammatical level, it would not be difficult to predict the difficulties native speakers of Arabic will find in acquiring what is a characteristically English 'emphatic' verbal periphrasis.

E. Verb Substitutes in English

It seems appropriate at this stage to touch on another feature of English auxiliaries which is akin to those considered so far in connection with negation, interrogation, questions, emphasis, and (below) tags. Again to quote from Twaddell's 'The English Verb Auxiliaries' when dealing with this role of Auxiliaries:

" Occurrence as the 'echo' substitute for the entire verb construction and its complements (predicate) in repetitions: 'You'll arrive before we will' 'Barbara can read Tocharian but Mac can't.' 'Peter's working hard and so is Mike.' This use of auxiliary as echo-substitute is common in answers to Yes-No questions: 'Will it rain? No, it won't' " (1)

Here again in the absence of an auxiliary, the so-called dummy 'do' is made use of as an echo-substitute. Examples are:

He speaks English better than I do.
 She arrived there before we did.
 Henry works hard and so does his wife.
 Do you smoke? Yes, I do.

Contrastive implications

Arabic has no parallel to this highly characteristic English usage. In comparable contexts in Arabic, the verb itself is repeated, or left out altogether. Examples are:

yuusef wuSel ba9dma wSulna
 (Joseph arrived after we did)

ruHut 9a l?ahwe ? — ?æ/?ee, ruHut
 (Did you go to the cafe? — Yes/Yes, I did)

(1) Op. cit.

Here again we have a problem which should be tackled with the comparable ones in connection with negation, interrogation, and questions, since it is in Twaddell's words,

"an inevitable corollary of our grammatical requirement of an auxiliary in interrogation, negation, and predicate echoing." (1)

Given these contrastive facts, one can understand why Syrian students say or write:

- @ Adnan graduated after I graduated.
- @ Do you smoke ? Yes, I smoke.

(1) Op. cit.

F. Tags in English

A consideration of so-called 'tags' in English and comparable complexes in Arabic is relevant at this point. Tags are illustrated after the commas in the following English sentences:

- A. 1. We must wait for them, mustn't we ?
 2. The children can play there, can't they ?
 3. They'll phone, won't they ?
 4. There are many books, aren't there ?
 5. He saw this film, didn't he ?
 6. John smokes cigars, doesn't he ?
- B. 1. We musn't wait for them, must we ?
 2. The children can't play there, can they ?
 3. They won't phone, will they ?
 4. There aren't many books, are there ?
 5. He didn't see this film, did he ?
 6. John doesn't smoke cigars, does he ?
- C. 1. (so) we must wait for them, must we ?
 2. (so) the children can play there, can they ?
 3. (so) they'll phone, will they ?
 4. (so) there are many books there, are there ?
 5. (so) he saw this film, did he ?
 6. (so) John smokes cigars, does he ?

It will be seen that the 'tag' provides an 'echo' of the preceding main clause in terms of the particular operator and pronoun selected. In the examples under A the affirmative main clause is followed by a negative tag. The negative sentences under B are followed by an affirmative tag. The affirmative examples under C are followed by an affirmative

tag and can all be initiated by 'so'.

Here, again, 'do' acts as a general auxiliary, its use being either related to the absence of an operator in an affirmative main clause or conforming to the 'echo' principle (1) in the case of a negative main clause .

Tags in Arabic

Arabic has one tag 'maheek', which is freely variant with 'muheek', that is used with all sentence-types, affirmative or negative. Examples are:

lbarmil faadi, maheek ?
(The barrel is empty, isn't it ?)

maa ?akalt buuza, maheek ?
(You didn't eat ice-cream, did you ?)

fii gandkon talivizyoon, maheek ?
(You have a television set at home, haven't you ?)

Contrastive implications

The difficulties of a speaker of Arabic, whose language has only one tag particle, must be enormous in view of the relative complexity of tags in English. The usual mistakes in this area consist in the indiscriminate use of 'isn't it' regardless of what precedes it, 'isn't it' being taken as the

(1) A more refined statement than is possible within the scope of this thesis, limited as it is to written form, would envisage detailed consideration inter alia of intonational features characteristic of sub-types of 'tag'-clauses.

equivalent of Arabic 'maheek' and is probably a calque of French 'n'est-ce pas ?', which is fairly well known among Syrians.

Chapter Two

Complex Sentences

In chapter one, simple sentences in English were outlined and contrasted with what are deemed to be comparable sentences in Arabic. In the following, complex sentences in both English and Arabic will be considered and distinguished from simple sentences and from what are termed compound sentences.

(1)
 (1) Complex Sentences in English

We have seen that a simple sentence consists of a subject and a predicate. The subject was stated to consist of a nominal, a noun or noun-type phrase which occupies positions typically occupied by nouns, linked to a verbal, a verb or verb-type phrase which occupies positions typically occupied by verbs, by certain patterns of agreement expressible in terms of a combined category of tense-person-number. A complex sentence consists of two or more simple sentences, which operate as 'clauses' in a larger unit, the complex sentence.

(1) I have drawn on George O. Curme's 'A Grammar of the English Language', V.III Syntax, D.C. Heath and Company, New York, 1931, in my treatment of complex sentences in English.

In a complex sentence it is convenient to distinguish between the main clause and the subordinate clause. A subordinate clause is usually introduced by one of a number of forms usually called subordinating conjunctions (that), relative pronouns (who, whose, which, etc.) or relative adverbs (where, when, etc.). It is further distinguished from the main clause in that it fulfils functions parallel to those of the elements of a simple sentence (see below). Thus a subordinate clause can function as subject, predicate, object, or as an adjunct to an element in the main clause, or to the main clause as a whole (see below for exemplification). Subordinate clauses ^{are} thus usually divided into noun clauses, adjective clauses, and adverb clauses. Before expanding on the subject of subordinate clauses, it is appropriate to distinguish simple sentences from complex sentences in more detail.

From the outset it should be emphasised that the complexity of the elements of which a sentence is made up has no effect on whether or not the sentence is simple. Thus to quote an example from Hill, the following is a simple sentence:

In our beautiful country ^{many} wise statesmen, sturdy pioneers, and adventurous merchants have consciously and unconsciously combined to give our youthful nation its wealth, freedom, and greatness.

(1) Archibald A. Hill, 'Introduction to Linguistic Structures. From Sound to Sentence in English', Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1958, p.337.

In contrast, the following is a complex sentence:

If Mary washes the dishes, John will dry them.

~~In other words, a simple sentence contains one predication (i.e. one finite verb); whereas a complex sentence contains two or more predications (i.e. two or more finite verbs).~~

Compound sentences are distinguished from complex sentences in being linked together by a number of co-ordinating conjunctions (and, but, or, etc.) whose function is to join together two units of the same status, i.e. two nouns, two adjectives, two verbs, two clauses, or two sentences. Furthermore, while subordinating conjunctions introducing subordinate clauses in a complex sentence can occur both in medial position (between the main and the subordinate clause) and in initial position (at the beginning of the complex sentence), co-ordinating conjunctions can only occur in medial position (between the two co-ordinated sentences). Cf., the sets of complex and compound sentences below:

Complex sentences

- A. We broke a window because the door was locked.
 Hurry up if you want to catch your train.
 I was quite ready when he called me.
- B. Because the door was locked, we broke a window.
If you want to catch your train, hurry up.
When he called me, I was quite ready.

Compound sentences

- A. The day was cloudy, and we went for a walk.

He makes good resolutions, but he never keeps them.
Seize the chance, or you will regret it.

- B. @ And he went for a walk, the day was cloudy.
 @ But he never keeps them, he makes good resolutions.
 @ Or you will regret it, seize the chance.

Both complex and compound sentences must be distinguished from what may be termed sequences of two sentences, the second one of which may contain one of a number of forms bearing a superficial resemblance to both co-ordinating and subordinating conjunctions. Cf. the sets of compound, complex, and sequence sentences below:

Compound sentences

Mary drinks coffee, and Barbara drinks tea.
The girls wept, but the boys went away.
He cannot be in his right senses, or he would not make such a wild statement.

Complex sentences

The history of our country tells us how our fathers became what they were.
Fools rush in where angels fear to tread.
I will help you though you do not deserve it.

Sequence sentences

The sky was cloudy; therefore we went for a walk.
He is always chin-deep in debt; nevertheless he is always jolly.
The girls wept; however, the boys went away

It will be noticed that the forms 'therefore', 'nevertheless', and 'however', which connect sequence sentences, share with both co-ordinating and subordinating conjunctions the property of occurring between the sentences they serve to link.

They differ, however, from subordinating conjunctions in that they cannot occur in initial position. Thus we cannot have:

@Therefore we went away; the sky was cloudy.
 @Nevertheless he is always jolly; he is always chin-deep in debt.
 @However, the boys went away; the girls wept.

In this respect, forms such as 'therefore', etc. resemble co-ordinating conjunctions. But unlike co-ordinating conjunctions, they may also occur at the end of the second sentence or inside it. Thus we can have:

The sky was cloudy; we went for a walk therefore.
 He is always chin-deep in debt; he is always jolly nevertheless.
 The girls wept; the boys went away, however.

and

The sky was cloudy; we therefore went for a walk.
 He is always chin-deep in debt; he is nevertheless always jolly.
 The girls wept; the boys, however, went away.

but not

@Mary drinks coffee, Barbara drinks tea and.
 @Mary drinks coffee, Barbara and drinks tea.

or

@Fools rush in angels fear to tread where.
 @Fools rush in angels where fear to tread.

Forms joining sequence sentences (like 'therefore', etc.) are called 'Sentence Connectors' by Paul Roberts, though others

(1) 'English Sentences', Harcourt, Brace & World Inc., 1962, pp. 109 ff.

call them conjunctions, and still others call them adverbs⁽¹⁾; and sentences joined by sentence connectors are best called 'Sequence Sentences'⁽²⁾. The distinction, therefore, is as much between classes of 'connector' as between sentence types.

Needless to say, the above classification applies primarily to written sentences. In spoken English, however, phonological features of pitch and juncture are important in distinguishing comparable classes of sentences, and may even⁽³⁾ give us a different sort of classification.

Having characterized complex sentences and distinguished them from compound and sequence sentences, it is appropriate to deal with the different structures within complex sentences.

It has been said that a complex sentence consists of one main clause and one or more subordinate clauses. Subordinate clauses are often of the form of simple sentences but without

(1) See Fries, op. cit., p. 250, footnote 4.

(2) Ibid, pp.240 ff.

(3) Cf. Hill's analysis, op.cit. ch. 19, where for him a complex sentence is that which consists of two sentence structures which "are placed under a single pitch superfix of two or more morphemes", and where the phonological linking distinguishes a main sentence from a dependent sentence.

'independent status'. Such clauses may ^{be} have as nouns, (1) adjectives, adverbs, or as sentence adjuncts, and thus are divided into noun, adjective, and adverb clauses, below.

Noun Clauses

Clauses classified under the heading 'Noun Clauses' occupy positions typically occupied by nouns. Thus they can be subject, object, complement, governed by a preposition, in apposition to a noun or pronoun. Cf. the underlined subjects in the following pairs:

Their whereabouts did not seem to be certainly known
How they spent the time did not seem to be certainly known.

Any visitor can be admitted
Whoever calls can be admitted

His coming is doubtful
Whether he is coming is doubtful

Subject clauses are introduced by the conjunction 'that', a relative pronoun (who, whoever, etc.) or a relative adverb (how, where, etc.)

(1) A sentence adjunct is a word or phrase not definable as subject, verb, or object, or part of these sentence elements. Pitch and juncture features in the spoken language serve to distinguish a sentence adjunct from adjuncts of sentence elements. In writing, sentence adjuncts are set off by commas. Cf. 'he took the path at the corner' and 'he took the path, at the corner,' 'at the corner' in the second example being a sentence-adjunct. See Hill, op. cit., pp.329 ff, and pp.335 ff below.

Object clauses are also introduced by the conjunction 'that', a relative pronoun, or a relative adverb. Cf. the underlined objects in the following pairs:

I saw the accident
I saw how he was killed

Give me the book
Give me what I want

He asked me a question
He asked me when I was going

In the following pairs, the underlined forms are governed by a preposition:

He told the story to everybody
He told the story to whoever would listen

The explosion took place near the crowd
The explosion took place near where we stood

I reminded him of his promise
I reminded him of what he said

The underlined forms in the following pairs are complements:

We are not cold
We are not what we used to be

This is my reason
This is why I like them

I made it comfortable
I made it what I wanted it to be

Appositional clauses, which are mostly introduced by 'that', must be distinguished from adjectival clauses, or

noun clauses in subject or object function. Cf. the following sentences, the first of which contains a subordinate clause in appositive function, the second, a subordinate clause in attributive function:

The thought that we shall live on after death consoles many.
The figs that we ate were in wooden boxes.

It will be noticed that the conjunction 'that' in the first sentence has no function except that of introducing the subordinate clause; whereas the relative 'that' in the second sentence functions as object to the verb 'ate' as well as introduces the relative clause. Moreover the different relatibility of both sentences serves to distinguish between appositional clauses and adjectival clauses. Thus the first sentence can be transformed into

That we shall live on after death consoles many
whereas the second cannot be transformed into

⊙ That we ate were in wooden boxes.

The formal distinction between appositional and adjectival clauses is important in view of the fact that both kinds of subordinate clauses qualify the preceding nouns, to speak in notional terms.

The distinction between a subordinate clause in subject or object function and a subordinate clause in appositive function can be seen in the following sentences, the first containing a subordinate clause in appositive function; the second, a subordinate clause in subject function; the third, a subordinate clause in object function.

The good people of the place had no doubt that the end had really come.
That the end had really come was certain.
 Nobody knew that the end had really come.

In the first sentence, the appositive clause does not function as a sentence element, in contrast to the subordinate clause in the second sentence, which functions as subject, and to that in the third sentence, which functions as object.

It will have become clear by now that subordinate noun clauses in appositive function are not exactly parallel to the other subordinate noun clauses; for whereas it has been possible to substitute a noun or noun phrase for subordinate clauses in subject, object, complement, or object of a preposition functions, no such substitution is possible in the case of appositive clauses. Cf.

The fact that her son survived should make her grateful
 @ The fact, his survival, should make her grateful.

Adjective Clauses

Subordinate clauses classified as adjective clauses have a noun or pronoun in the main clause to which they serve as adjuncts. They are introduced by relative pronouns (who, whom, that, which, whose, as) or relative adverbs (where, when, why, etc.) Examples are:

In every society, however seemingly corrupt, there are those who have not bowed the knee to Baal.
 The book which I hold in my hand is an English grammar.
 There was that about him that did not please her.
 I cannot remember the place where I saw her last.

Clauses of the above kind are usually termed restrictive clauses and are to be distinguished from non-restrictive clauses which are introduced by similar forms. Non-restrictive clauses, as we shall see (see pp.128 ff.), are distinguished by features of pitch and juncture, in spoken English, and are set off by a comma in written English; and it would seem more appropriate to classify sentences containing non-restrictive clauses as compound rather than complex sentences. This is especially justified in those cases where the non-restrictive clause has no antecedent in the preceding clause, e.g.

Our team lost the match, which is a pity.
 This time the weather is fine, which makes all the difference.
 He commanded that the prisoner should be set free, which order was carried out instantly.
 She was much attracted by the novels of Kingsley, between whose genius and his faults she drew a drastic contrast.

Adverb Clauses

The statement that subordinate clauses fulfil functions parallel to those of the elements of a simple sentence (p.76) is only partially true. A consideration of clauses classified as adverb clauses makes it clear that whereas the great majority of clauses so classified can be shown to have functions parallel to those of adverbs, other clauses also classified as adverb clauses show no such parallel function. Cf.

I have done it as it should be done.
I have done it well.

Turn the lantern so that we may see
Turn the lantern ?

Yet clauses classified as adverb clauses exhibit comparable behaviour in relation to main clauses which is parallel to that of sentence adjuncts in relation to simple sentences (see footnote 1, p.81), which should justify grouping them under adverb clauses.

Adverb clauses have been traditionally classified into clauses of time, place, cause, purpose, result, condition, comparison, manner, concession, etc. The formal basis for this classification could perhaps be sought in the type of forms introducing each of these sub-classes, as well as in the type of question words (when, where, how, etc.) some of them are correlated with.

Following are a few examples illustrating these sub-classes of adverbial clauses:

When I was young I looked at these things differently (time)

Wherever he went, he was kindly received (place)

The crops failed because the season was dry (cause)

Turn the lantern so that we may see (purpose)

He has always lived such a life that he cannot expect sympathy now (result)

You may go where you like provided you are back by noon (condition)

It is better that ten criminals should escape than that one innocent man should be hanged (comparison)

I must go just as I am (manner)

They will start tomorrow though it rains cats and dogs (con-
cession)

Needless to say, the above sketch of complex sentences and clauses is not to be taken as exhaustive. It is rather a rapid survey which will provide a frame of reference in the discussion of the topics which will be dealt with in the following chapters, such as the use of tenses and their sequence, the distribution of gerunds, present participles, past participles, infinitives, etc. But first a rapid sketch of what are deemed to be comparable complex sentences in Arabic is necessary.

(2) Complex Sentences in Arabic

Parallel to the English classification of sentences into simple, compound, and complex, it is possible to classify sentences in Arabic in a similar way on the basis of comparable criteria.

Arabic sentences of the type considered in Chapter One, i.e., nominal, verbal, and fii & particle sentences can enter into different combinations. The combination may be co-ordinate, and the result a compound sentence; or it may be subordinate, and the result a complex sentence. Thus two sentences joined by a member of the closed class of conjunctions w, bass, laaken, lumma, wala (and, but, but, or, nor) constitute a compound sentence. Sentences joined by a set of subordinators lamma, Hatta, ?unno, ?iza, ma9 ?unno, la?unno, etc. (when, so that, that, if, although, because) and the relative 'yalli' constitute complex sentences. The constituents of a complex sentence are sentences "downgraded" to the status of 'clauses', and together form a larger unit, the complex sentence.

Although the structure of complex sentences and that of clauses and their behaviour are not identical in English and Arabic, yet the parallelism between complex sentences and

clauses in the two languages is such as to make the use of these terms with reference to both English and Arabic amply justified.

Thus the difference between compound and complex sentences in Arabic is comparable to that between compound and complex sentences in English. Of the following sets:

Complex sentences

A. l?aale lkaatbe ntaz9et la?unno waa?el lu9eb fiha
(the type-writer was damaged because Wael fiddled with it)

raH naaxod taksi bima?unno ddunye bard
(We'll take a taxi because it is cold)

maa ba9ref ?udros ?iza maa numut tmun saa9aat
(I can't study if I don't sleep for eight hours)

B. la?unno waa?el lu9eb fiha ntaz9et ul?aale lkaatbe
(Because Wael fiddled with it the type-writer was damaged)

bima?unno ddunye bard raH naaxod taksi
(Because it is cold we'll take a taxi)

?iza maa numut tmun saa9aat maa ba9ref ?udros
(If I don't sleep for eight hours I can't work)

Compound sentences

A. ?tareena talivizyoon bass maa sta9malnaa
(We bought a television set but we haven't used it)

ntuzurni xams da?aaye? w ruuH ba9deen
(Wait for me for five minutes and then go)

truuH ma9i lumna tub?a ma9 ?ummak ?
(Will you come with me or will you stay with your mother?)

B. @ bass ma9 sta9malna9 starecna talivizyoon
 (@ but we haven't used it we bought a television set)

@ w ruuH ba9deen ntuzurni xams da?aaye?
 (@ and go then wait for me for five minutes)

@ lumma9 tub?a ma9 ?unmak truuH ma9i ?
 (@ or will you stay with your mother will you go
 with me ?)

It will be noticed that while complex sentences can begin with a subordinator introducing the subordinate clause, or have the subordinator and the subordinate clause following the main clause, compound sentences cannot have the conjunction at the beginning of the compound sentence; rather, it must appear between the two constituents of the compound sentence. The transpositional contrast between the constituents of compound sentences and those of complex sentences, in addition to the membership of the form-classes of the connectors, distinguish compound from complex sentences in both languages.

In complex sentences, moreover, it is possible to distinguish, in parallel with English, two kinds of clauses: the main, and the subordinate clause/s. A subordinate clause is introduced by a subordinator or the relative 'yalli' and is analysable as an expanded sentence element or an adjunct to one of the elements in the larger unit, the complex sentence. The rest of the sentence is the main clause. Cf.

?ana ba9ref uttaariix

(I know the date)

?ana ba9ref ?eemta: 9iid miilandak

(I know when your birthday is)

?addees' Ha?? ulkamera jjiide ?

(How much does the new camera cost ?)

?addees' Ha?? ulkamera yalli staroetha ?

(How much does the camera which you bought cost ?)

Saadafton mbaareH

(I met them yesterday)

Saadafton lamma kunt bu ljaam9a

(I met them when I was at the university)

As has been pointed out in the case of subordinate clauses in English, not all subordinate clauses in Arabic operate in a similar manner to sentence elements or adjuncts thereof, but clauses classified as subordinate exhibit in general comparable behaviour (see examples below), which justifies grouping them under one term.

Classification of subordinate clauses

Subordinate clauses in Arabic can be classified, as in English, into noun, adjective, and adverb clauses on the basis of syntactical behaviour comparable to that of forms classified as nouns, adjectives, and adverbs respectively.

Noun Clauses

Clauses classified as noun clauses have syntactical functions characteristic of nouns. Thus they can function as subject, predicate, object, object of a preposition, complement, and

in apposition to a noun. Forms introducing noun clauses comprise: ?unno (that), ween (where), ?eenta (when), kiif (how), ?iza (if), etc.

Subject clauses

Subject clauses are not common in spoken Arabic, observed instances being characteristic of educated speakers, whose usage in this particular case is a kind of carry-over from written Arabic. But unlike subjects in simple sentences, which can precede or follow their predicates (see p.9), subject clauses nearly always follow their predicates (in this case the main clause). In the rare cases where the subject clause precedes the main clause, the subordinator '?unno' is preceded by the form 'šit'. Examples are:

byuz9ujha ktir la ?ummi ?unno nuskon ma9ha
(It bothers my mother much for us to live with her)

bi surrna ?unno tzuuruuna
(It pleases us for you to visit us)

šit ?unno ?utHammal ulmas?uuliyye laHaali maa bu?der
(I can't take all the responsibility. Lit.: for me to take all the responsibility, I can't.)

Predicate clauses

Predicate clauses are introduced by '?unno' and usually follow the main clause, which is initiated by the relative 'yalli'. Examples are:

yalli butSawwaro ?unno ssafar bu lbaaxira bisalli
(What I think is that sea travel is entertaining)

yalli ba9urfo ?unno btu?der tun?ulon la ?aale taanyo
 (what I know is that you can transfer them to another machine)

yalli buq̄turHo 9aleekon ?unno tuṣṣtruuha
 (what I suggest is for you to buy it)

Object clauses

Object clauses occur after transitive verbs and are introduced by '?unno', '?eemta' (when), 'kiif' (how), '?iza' (if), etc. Examples are:

9ammi 9allamni ?unno ?alled ?umDaa
 (My uncle taught me to imitate his signature)

s?alo ?iza byi?der ysaa9dak
 (Ask him if he can help you)

bta9urfi ṣuu 9umlet maysaa? ?
 (Do you know what Naisa did ?)

Prepositional clauses

Prepositional clauses are preceded by a preposition and are introduced by the relative 'yalli'. Examples are:

?aHyaanan biSiir Hadiis been yalli waa?fiin 9a lmasraH
 w been yalli bu ssinema
 (sometimes a dialogue takes place between those on the stage and those in the pictures)

Tul9et mun yalli maa byitHammalu luwlaad
 (she turned out to be one of those who can not stand children)

luwlaad byunbusTu ma9 yalli bilaa9buuhon
 (children are happy with those who play with them)

Complement Clauses

Complement clauses occur after the same group of verbs which occur in sentences of the type discussed on page 22, and are introduced by '?unno'. Examples are:

Tul9et ul?uSSa ?unno buddo yutjawwazzha
(Lit.: the story turned out to be that he wanted to marry her)

mun lahjet Hadiiso bayyanet ulmas?ale ?unno 9am yumzaH
(From the tone of his voice it was clear he was joking)

ba9d mufaawaDaat Tawiile Dall ul?uttifaa? ?unno kul balad byidfa9 juzu? mun ulmaSruufaat
(After long negotiations the agreement (lit.) was reached that each country would contribute its share of the costs)

Appositive Clauses

Appositive clauses are introduced by '?unno' and are preceded by a noun, to which they stand in apposition.

Examples are:

šu9uuro ?unno ?axuu raH ynaaz9o bixallii yGaar munno
(His knowledge that his brother will compete with him makes him jealous)

muHaawaluton yxabbu lxabar 9anno maa najHet
(Their attempt to keep the news secret did not succeed)

haada burhaan ?unno 9am nutjaawaz SalaaHiyyitna
(This is evidence that we are overstepping our jurisdiction)

Adjective Clauses

Adjective clauses can be divided into two groups: the first group is introduced by the relative 'yalli' and is used when

the antecedent is definite (see p.134); the second group is not introduced by any form and is used when the antecedent is indefinite. Examples are:

A. šuu ha luktaab yalli 9am tu?raa ?
(what is this book you are reading ?)

bu9tu ddawaliib yalli kaanet 9andkon ?
(did you sell the tyres you had ?)

naawliini luktaab yalli juldo ?axDar
(hand me the book whose cover is green)

B. ma9i mablaG byiGri l9afariit
(I have a sum of money that tempts devils)

fiiha mawaad kulfutha Gaalye
(it has raw material whose cost is high)

štara beet ?ulo jneene
(he bought a house which has a garden)

It will be noticed that adjective clauses contain an element referable to the antecedent. Thus in adjective clauses which have the form of verbal sentences, the verbal agrees in number, and (in the singular) in gender with the antecedent, while the relative 'yalli' functions as subject, as in, 'lbunt yalli 9am t?addem ulbarnaamej bta9ref 9arabi' (the girl who introduces the programme knows Arabic), where the verbal 't?addem' agrees with the antecedent 'lbunt' in number and gender. When the relative functions as object, in the adjective clause, the verbal is compounded with a pronominal suffix of the same number and gender as the antecedent, as in, '9ajabni lbeet yalli sta?jarto' (I liked the house I rented), where the pronominal suffix '-o'

colligates with the verb 'staʔjart' and is of the same number and gender as the antecedent 'lbeet'.

When the adjective clause is in the form of a nominal sentence or of a fii or particle sentence, one of the clause constituents is a pronominal suffix agreeing in number and gender with the antecedent, whether the latter is definite or indefinite, as in,

Antecedent definite

9aTiini l9ulbe yalli loonha ʔazraʔ
(give me the box whose colour is blue)

waaʔel biHubb ulbaraamej yalli fiiha musiqa
(Wael likes programmes which have music)

Antecedent indefinite

.šufna fulum mawDuu9o saxiif
(we saw a film whose theme is silly)

ʔulo rfiiʔ 9ando ʔal9aab ktiire
(he has a friend who has many toys)

Adverb Clauses

Adverb clauses behave like adverbs or sentence adjuncts in the sense that they occupy positions occupied by adverbs or sentence adjuncts. Cf.

wSulna lmasa
(we arrived in the evening)

wSulna lamma Gaabet uššams
(we arrived when the sun set)

shurna hoon
(We spent the evening here)

shurna maTraHma ?ultuulna
(We spent the evening where you told us)

bisuu? bisur9a
(He drives fast)

bisuu? mutulma waSSeeto
(He drives as I advised him)

štareeto bisu9ur Gaali mun suu? ulHaZZ
(I bought it at a high price, unfortunately)

štareeto bisu9ur Gaali ma9 ?unno muu Daruuri
(I bought it at a high price although it was not necessary)

Parallel to adverb clauses in English, adverb clauses in Arabic can be divided according to the type of forms introducing them into clauses of time, place, manner, condition, concession, etc. Examples are:

9allamuton šuu y?uulu lamma buji (time)
(She taught them what to say when I come)

fii naSb 9andma maat yuusef ul9aDme (place)
(There is a monument where Yusef Al Adme died)

SSaaf ul?awwal ?aHsan bu9tibaar ulmasraH b9iid (cause)
(The first row is better because the stage is far)

wSufiiha mniiH Hatta ?u?der ?utxayyalha (purpose)
(Describe it accurately so that I can imagine it)

Dallo yušrab lahatta suker (result)
(He kept drinking till he became drunk)

law kaan byuHturem ?abuu maa byiHki heek (condition)
(If he had any respect for his father he would not talk like this)

la?eeto mutulma waSafto (comparison)
 (I found him as you described him)

9am yiHki ka?unno lmawDuu9 bihummo faxSiyyan (manner)
 (he is talking as though the matter concerned him personally)

maa Sawwar ?ubno ma9 ?unno 9ando kamera (concession)
 (he hasn't photographed his son although he has a camera)

Part II : Phrase-Structure

Chapter One

Noun-Phrases

A favourite type of simple sentence in English consists of a nominal phrase and a verbal phrase. Noun phrases in English and Arabic are discussed below with emphasis on those features which give rise to conflict between the two languages.

A noun-phrase is essentially a syntactic structure of so-called 'modification'⁽¹⁾ which consists of a head and a modifier. The head is that member of the structure which can perform by itself the syntactic function performed by the whole structure.

Modifiers in noun-phrase can be one of the following:

A noun : dog days, men's trousers, dining-table

A verb : running water, money to burn

An adjective : gloomy rooms, barbed wire, pleasing manners

An adverb : people here, Europe now

A prepositional phrase : men above suspicion, places in the sun .

(1) W. Nelson Francis, 'The Structure of American English', The Roland Press Company, New York, 1958, p. 297.

In the first part of this chapter head-words functioning in the noun-phrase will be considered first, to be followed in the second part by modifiers or adjunct-words.

(1.) Head-words

Words which operate as head in noun-phrases in both English and Arabic constitute a major open word-class which can be subdivided into various sub-classes, the chief being nouns and pronouns.

A. Nouns

In both English and Arabic it is possible to set up a major open word-class of nouns on comparable syntactic criteria.

Both English and Arabic nouns are variable in terms of a category of number, though the terms of this category belong to totally different systems in the two languages. Thus while English nouns, or rather the sub-class of countable nouns, are variable within a two-term system (singular: man/plural:men), it is necessary to recognize a three-term system (singular, dual, and plural), and in the case of 'collective nouns' a five-term system in Arabic. Cf. singular: ktaab, dual:ktaabeen, plural:kutub and singulative:šajara,

dual: šajarteen, collective:šajar, little plural:šajaraat,
 (1)
 big plural:ʔašjaar.

Contrastive implications

The conflict which may arise in connection with the category of number reflects the different exponency of number in the two languages. Leaving aside relations like man-men, foot-feet, child-children, and loan plurals like criterion-criteria, fungus-fungi, alumnus-alumni, English has only one regular type of plural exponent which appears in three phonologically conditioned shapes in complementary distribution /s, z, iz/.

Arabic plural formation can be divided into two major types: plural by suffix (-iin, -aat, etc..) e.g. xayyaaṭ-xayyaaṭiin, sayyaara-sayyaaraat; and 'broken plural' where, in spite of considerable regularity of correspondence between singular and plural patterns, one form is not always predictable from the other. Common plural patterns are:

ccaac and ʔaccaac (wlaad, klaab, ʔalwaan, ʔaSHaab)

ccuuc (byuut, SHuun)

cucac (9ulab, sukak)

cuccaac (9ummaal, Sunnaa9)

It is clear that the speaker of Arabic is moving from a more complex to a less complex pattern of plural formation

(1) See T. F. Mitchell, 'Colloquial Arabic', The English Universities Press Ltd., 1962, p.36 ff.

so that, except for the English irregular plurals which should be learned as separate items, learning the regular plural formation of English constitutes no big problem.

Another shared characteristic of nouns in both languages is the fact that they appear in many contrastive forms relative to other word-classes. Chapter VII of Fries's 'The Structure of English' deals with these contrastive forms of word-classes. Examples of class 1 contrasting with those of class 2 and class 3 are as follows:

<u>Class 1</u>	<u>Class 2</u>	<u>Class 1</u>	<u>Class 3</u>
arrival	arrive	bigness	big
refusal	refuse	blackness	black
departure	depart	goodness	good
delivery	deliver	happiness	happy
robbery	rob.	kindness	kind
achievement	achieve	activity	active
judgment	judge	equality	equal

Arabic nouns also exhibit contrastive forms relative to other word-classes, contrast being marked by variation of vowel pattern. Examples are:

<u>Verbs</u>	<u>Nouns</u>	<u>Adjectives</u>	<u>Nouns</u>
?aal	?ool	?amin	?amaane
šaaf	šoof	baliid	balaade
naam	noom	sa?iil	sa?aale
?amar	?amur	?abyaD	bayaaD
?akal	?akul	?aHnar	Hamaar
ra?aS	ra?uS	?axDar	xaDaar

One feature of English, however, which puzzles native speakers of Arabic relates to the fact of homophony, by which a great many words appear in the same form as members of different word-classes. The word 'round' which can be used as a noun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb, and a preposition, is perhaps an extreme case. Cf.

He was knocked down in the first round (noun)
 To round up the matter (verb)
 Mine is a round watch (adjective)
 He turned round (adverb)
 He went round the house (preposition)

(1)

High-frequency words belonging to at least two word-classes are fairly numerous in modern English and include: walk, drive, shop, sleep, drink, hit, miss, love, paper, show, etc.

(1) Cf. Charles F. Hockett's classification of word-classes in his 'A Course in Modern Linguistics', The Macmillan Company, New York, 1958, pp.225 ff., where he sets up class N which includes nouns like strength, food, action, day, friend, art, which function as nouns only; class A which includes adjectives like long, false, likely, certain, icy, sleepy, soft, which function as adjectives only; class NA which includes words like savage, sweet, American, private, male, white, red, which have nounal and adjectival functions (cf. a good American, he is an American, they are Americans; and he is American, they are American, John is more American than his sister); class V includes verbs like describe, admit, punish, bury, strengthen, which have verbal function only; class NV which includes words like walk, love, cure, change, air, eye, nose, elbow, cut, build, which have nounal and verbal functions; class AV which includes words like clean, dry, thin, slow, clear, busy, idle, which have verbal and adjectival functions; and finally class NAV which includes words like fancy, faint, black, yellow, blue, brown, gay, damp, which have nounal, adjectival, and verbal functions.

Since no general rule or statement can cover these cases, they have to be learned as individual items and tax the memory of native speakers of Arabic, for whom they are also a source^{of} confusion, since word-classes in Arabic have distinctive forms. The following attested mistakes are a clear indication of this kind of confusion:

- @I wished to strength my English.
- @The useful of studying English.
- @It cultures people.
- @Finally I choiced it.

An important characteristic that is shared by nouns in the two languages is the fact that they fill certain characteristic (and comparable) positions in relation to other identifiable (and comparable) word-classes in phrases and extended forms. Thus nouns can colligate with verbs to form a 'structure of predication'⁽¹⁾. Cf.

The sun sets in the west

ššams btuGrob mun ulGarb

Nouns also occur after verbs to form 'structures of complementation'⁽²⁾. Within structures of complementation, it is possible to distinguish different types according

(1) Francis, op. cit., pp. 325 ff.

(2) Ibid, pp. 342 ff.

to the type of preceding verbs (o.g. whether transitive or stative).

The complement of a transitive verb is called 'object'. When the complement consists of two objects, one of them is always termed a 'direct object'; the other is either an 'indirect object' or an 'objective complement'. Examples are:

Direct Object

My son is studying English
 ?ubni 9am yudros ?unɣliizi

Indirect Object

He gave his friend two books
 huwwe 9aɾa rfiɪ?o ktaabeen

Objective Complement

We elected John president
 nuHna ntaxabna Hanna ra?iis

In a structure of complementation comprising a direct and an indirect object, the indirect object precedes the direct object. Indirect objects and objective complements are distinguished by the fact that the latter, unlike the former, belong to the same substitution class as the direct object (i.e. the direct^{object} and the objective complement have the 'same referent'). Moreover, sentences containing a direct and an indirect object can have two passive transformations in which either the direct or the indirect object

may appear as subject; sentences containing a direct object and an objective complement, on the other hand, can have only one passive transformation. Cf.

He gave his friend two books
 Two books were given ~~his friend~~ by him to his friend
 His friend was given two books by him

and

We elected his brother president
 His brother was elected president by us
 @ President was elected his brother by us.

The complement of a stative verb is called 'subjective complement'. Unlike transitive verbs which belong to an open class, stative verbs are a closed class comprising become, seem, remain, look, sound (see p.11) as well as the copulative 'be'.
 Examples are:

The partners remained friends
 Şuraka bu?yu rufa?a

The water became ice
 lmayy Saaret talj

Soldiers are heroes
 ljunuud ?abTaal

So far all except the last example have shown a one-to-one correspondence between the different kinds of complements in English and Arabic. In the last example, however, correspondence between English 'heroes' and Arabic '?abTaal' is only partial since '?abTaal' is structurally equivalent to 'are heroes'

In other words 'ʔabʔaal' in this context is a predicate and not a complement. This difference between English and Arabic constitutes a serious conflict between English and Arabic which is reflected by an abundance of attested mistakes of the following type:

- @ The first thing that drew the attention of every one its place in the centre.
- @ The most important thing its discipline.
- @ It the first university in Syria.

Unlike Arabic, English requires the copulative 'be' in the above examples (see also Sentence Type VI, pp. 15 ff.)

Another comparable position of nouns in both languages is illustrated by what may be termed 'prepositional phrases' in which a preposition is followed by a noun which may be called its 'object'. Cf.

Under water (taht ulmayy)
 After dinner (ba9d ul9aša)
 Above suspicion (fooʔ uššubha)

Nouns in both languages can also modify other nouns. In English, nouns make up a considerable number (as many as 25 per cent) of the single-word modifiers of nouns. ⁽¹⁾

(1) Ibid, p. 299.

Structures involving a noun-head and a noun-modifier are of two kinds: (a) those in which the modifying noun has the genitive inflection {'s}, and (b) those in which it appears in the base form or with the plural inflection {-es}. The first is called the 'genitive construction' and the other the 'noun-adjunct construction'. Examples of both, with the same noun as modifier, can be matched with one another.

Genitive

My father's house
Child's play
A day's work

Noun-Adjunct

A father image
Child psychology
The day shift

The difference between the two constructions can be described as follows: the genitive construction may be substituted by a construction with 'of' (though by no means invariably, since we cannot for example say 'The play of a child' or 'the work of a day') (cf. 'The boy's book' and 'The book of the boy'. On the other hand, some other kind of construction must be substituted for the noun-adjunct. Cf. the different transforms of the following constructions where \longleftrightarrow separates mutual transforms:

My father's house \longleftrightarrow The house of my father
A father image \longleftrightarrow An image like a father.

That woman's doctor \longleftrightarrow The doctor of that woman
That woman doctor \longleftrightarrow That doctor who is a woman

In Arabic a noun can be modified by a following noun to form what is traditionally referred to in Arabic grammar as 'the construct'⁽¹⁾. In this construction only the second noun can be associated with the article 'l' , to form a definite construction. Cf.

baab beet (a house door)
baab ulbeet (the door of the house)

Two kinds of difficulty emerge from a comparison of the behaviour of nouns as noun modifiers in the two languages. The first reflects the different order of the noun modifier relative to the noun head in the two languages. For whereas the modifier precedes the head in English, it follows the head in Arabic. This difference constitutes a conflict which is reflected by mistakes like the following:

@The book's pupil.
@The car's doctor.

The second kind of difficulty relates to the restricted

(1) Constructs are distinguished from other prima facie similar constructions in which the modifying noun belongs to a subclass of 'nouns of material' by the fact that only the second noun can be associated with the article 'l', whereas both constituents can be associated with 'l' in other constructions. Cf.

saa9et ulbunt (the girl's watch)
ssaa9a ddahab (the gold watch)

use of noun modifiers which have the genitive inflection, as opposed to absence of restriction in the case of the comparable construction in Arabic, 'the construct'.

Thus according to Jespersen, the genitive is chiefly used with the names of human beings, ⁽¹⁾ and according to ⁽²⁾ Palmer, the genitive inflection is almost exclusively used in connection with a. names of person: John's book; b. names designating persons: my brother's house; c. names of pet animals: Fido's basket; d. names designating animals: a cat's whiskers; e. certain words logically intermediate between nouns and adverbs of time and duration: yesterday's correspondence.

Since the construct in Arabic is applicable to all nouns, a transfer of this characteristic to English results in mistakes of the following type:

- @ The table's leg
- @ The door's handle

(1) Otto Jespersen, 'Essentials of English Grammar', George Allen & Unwin Ltd., London, 1938, p.143.
 (2) Harold E. Palmer, 'A Grammar of Spoken English', W. Heffer and Sons Ltd., Cambridge, 1927, p.37. Cf., however, Russel Thomas's findings in his 'The Inflected Genitive in Modern American Prose', Readings in Applied English Linguistics? Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., New York, in which he collected 489 examples of inflected genitives of words not denoting human beings.

Classification of nouns

In both English and Arabic, nouns lend themselves to comparable sub-classifications on the basis of more or less similar criteria. Thus the sub-class proper noun, for instance, is applicable to both languages and can be established on comparable criteria: generally speaking, lack of number variation and non-colligability with the definite articles, 'the' in English, and 'l' in Arabic. For example, we can say:

the man, men

lwalad, luwlaad

but not, in comparable contexts,

@ the John, @ Johns

@ lwaa?el, @lwaa?liin

It is interesting to note, however, that in certain cases, a noun classified as a proper noun in English can appear in the plural or can associate with the definite article, e.g.

1. There are many Johns in the class.

2. a I saw John yesterday.

b Which John ?

c The John I told you about.

In Arabic, on the other hand, a noun classified as a proper noun can never appear in the plural or associate with the definite article. In contexts comparable with those in the last English examples Arabic has

1. fi1 guddet wlaad ?usmon. joon bu SSaff
(lit.:there are many boys their name (is) John in the class)
2. a. ŝuft joon mbaareH
b. ?anu joon ?
c. joon yalli ?ultullak 9alee.

Another parallel sub-class of nouns in the two languages is that of uncountable nouns. Uncountable nouns in English can be divided into two main types: those lacking a plural (those that have singular concord), and those lacking a singular (those that have a plural concord).

Those lacking a plural form include subject names (phonetics, mathematics, classics); names of materials, (wood, gold, rubber); nouns of abstract ideas (knowledge, courage, happiness), and a miscellaneous group (news, billiards, measles, information, furniture). Forms of this class should be distinguished from what may be termed their homophonous counterparts which pattern like countable nouns. For instance, 'damages' is not the plural of 'damage'.

Those nouns lacking a singular are often plural in form (annals, bellows, trousers); a few words of closed-class plural types (cognoscenti, magi, antipodes); a few that exhibit no mark of plural (cattle, clergy, folk).

Within uncountables lacking a singular form, those that carry no mark of plural can appear in the genitive construction (the cattle's byres), but those that contain an apparently plural suffix appear in what T. F. Mitchell terms the 'neutrality' of the pre-final component⁽¹⁾. Cf.

a billiard table (cf. a game of billiards)
indoor cultivation (cf. cultivation indoors)

In Arabic also, it is possible to set up a sub-class of uncountable nouns which may be divided into two types: those lacking singular and those lacking plural forms.

The first type has a limited membership and comprises subject names: riyadiyyaat (mathematics), ?u?ti-maa?iyyaat (social sciences), ?ax-laa? (ethics); names of dishes and drinks: muqabbilaat (appetizing dishes), ma?aali (fried dishes), mura?ti-baat (cold drinks), and a miscellaneous group: muwaasalaat (communications), madfuu?aat (payments), mujawha-raat (jewelry).

Those lacking a plural form have an open membership and comprise names of material : fulfol (pepper), dahab (gold), ?meento (cement); names of abstract concepts: karam (generosity)

(1) 'Some English Phrasal Types', Preprint to appear in J. R. Firth Memorial Volume, p.12.

GaDab (anger), luTuf (gentleness).

The comparison between English and Arabic uncountable nouns shows that the category can be established for both languages. The contrastive implications, however, emerge from the different membership of nouns so classified in the two languages. For instance, while trousers, bellows, are forms which lack a singular in English, the nearest corresponding lexical items in Arabic are nouns classifiable as countable nouns, cf. banTaloon (sing.) and banTaloonaat (pl.); munfaax (sing.) and manaflix (pl.). Conversely while 'news' is a form that lacks a plural, its nearest corresponding item in Arabic is again a countable '?axbaar'. The above facts explain the following mistakes:

- @ The news are surprising.
- @ The furnitures we bought are expensive.

which reflect the different sub-class membership of the lexical items '?axbaar' and 'mafruuša'at' (countable nouns in Arabic), and 'news' and 'furniture' (uncountables in English).

The sub-class of English nouns which is traditionally termed 'collective nouns' can be a source of difficulty for speakers of Arabic, which has no such category. English nouns classified as 'collective nouns' are recognisable as such on the basis of their appearance in both plural and singular

concord patterns. Cf. the following examples taken from
 (1)
 Kruisinga

The Government have determined to economize in the shipping required to import foodstuffs from abroad. The educated class - whatever that may mean - usually prefer what we may call public school English.

The United States Government has made a loan of £5.000.000 to Italy. From an economic and social point of view the most important class of the population was the slaves.

Absence of this category in Arabic constitutes a learning problem which is reflected in the following mistakes:

- @ The cattle is stolen from the field.
- @ The team is shaking hands with the minister.

Other contrastive distributional characteristics of uncountable nouns in the two languages will be dealt with in connection with the definite article (see pp. 110 ff)

'De-adjectival class nouns'

There is still to be considered another sub-class of
 (2)
 nouns which Strang calls 'de-adjectival class nouns'. Nouns of this group are homophonous with adjectives, and subject to plural concord, (though they are not compounded with the plural

(1) E. Kruisinga, and P.A. Erades, 'An English Grammar', P. Noordhoff, Groningen, 1953, p.62.

(2) Barbara M. H. Strang, 'Modern English Structure', Edward Arnold (Publishers) Ltd. 1962, p.97.

morpheme) and must be preceded by the definite article 'the'.
Examples are: the poor, the first of the few, the very rich.

Arabic has a corresponding sub-class of nouns which are homophonous with adjectives. Reference is made to forms like Hulu (sweet), buše9 (ugly), ta9baan (tired) which behave like adjectives, i.e. colligate with preceding nouns with which they agree in number and gender (bunt buš9a (an ugly girl), banaat buš9iin (ugly girls)) and which can also operate as nouns and, unlike corresponding English nouns, are subject to number variation. Cf.

lfa?iir byiHsed ulGani
(The poor (one) envies the rich (one))

with

lfu?ara byiHusdu l?aGniya
(The poor envy the rich)

The conflict between English and Arabic in this connection accounts for the following attested mistakes:

- @ The blinds need our help
- @ The poor envies the rich.

which are translations of

l9umyaan byiHtaa9u musaa9adutna
lfa?iir byiHsed ulGani

Given the characteristics of the sub-class of Arabic nouns, namely, their number variability, and assuming that the speaker

of Arabic will transfer those characteristics to corresponding nouns in English, we can see how mistakes of the above and the following kind are generated:

rujjaal ?a9ma = a blind man
 Saar ?a9ma = he became blind
 l?a9ma wu?e9 = ① the blind has fallen (for 'the blind man')
 l9umyaan wu?9u = ② the blinds have fallen (for 'the blind men')

Closely related to the last group of nouns in both English and Arabic are 'colour-adjectives'. These are fully like adjectives, but in addition they can fill positions typically occupied by nouns and which other adjectives cannot fill. Examples are:

Red is an exciting colour.
 I am fond of blue.
 That shade of blue doesn't suit me.

Comparable forms in Arabic have adjectival and nominal functions but differ from corresponding forms in English in that they are capable of number variation and must appear with the definite article. Cf.

?alam ?aHmar (a red pen)
 l?aHmar 9alaamet ulxaTar (red is the sign of danger)
 lHumur ?aHla (the red (ones) are nicer)

The different distributional characteristics of colour adjectives in English and Arabic constitutes a conflict which is reflected by the following attested mistakes:

① The yellow is my favourite colour
~~② The greens are better than the yellows~~
 ③ Of all colours I prefer the blue

Cf. 'Of the dresses we have seen, I prefer the blue (one).

B. PronounsEnglish Pronouns

Because of their morphological characteristics, pronouns have been traditionally classified as a separate part of speech. On syntactic grounds, however, they can be regarded for some purposes as a sub-class of nouns because they can fill positions typically occupied by nouns: thus they can be subjects (he talks nonsense), objects (they invited us), objects of prepositions (we gave it to them), etc. On the other hand, pronouns differ from nouns in that the latter have nothing like such a scatter as 'I, me, my, mine' relatable to differences of syntactic structure, and in that pronouns do not colligate with the characteristic adjunct words of nouns (cf. the man; @ the he)

Personal pronouns can be tabulated as follows:

		First person	Second person	Third person		
				Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Sing.	nc	I	you	he	she	it
	na	me	you	him	her	it
	gc	my	your	his	her	its
	ga	mine	yours	his	hers	its
Plural	nc	we	you		they	
	na	us	you		them	
	gc	our	your		their	
	ga	ours	yours		theirs	

where n = nominative, g = genitive, c = conjoint, a = absolute

A morphological analysis of pronouns in paradigm form is extremely complicated. ⁽¹⁾ A more practical way is to treat them as a complex system operating in several dimensions: those of case, number, gender, and person.

Thus the fourfold scatter illustrated by 'I (nc), me (na), my (gc), mine (ga), between which a relationship of mutual exclusion obtains in relation to the grammatical environment might be shown as follows: ⁽²⁾

gc ... with a following nominal

ga ... with a genitive form elsewhere in the text, e.g.

'A. Whose hat is that ? B. Mine' or

'A. Is [↑]this [↑]my hat or Tom's ? B. No, that's mine, yours
is over [↑]there'. [↑] [↑] [↑] [↑]

nc ... (i) with a following finite verb (less the operators)

(ii) with a preceding operator as part of interrogative complexes

na .. (i) with a preceding finite verb (less the operators)

(ii) with a preceding preposition

(iii) with a following infinitival verbal (e.g. 'Is it ne
to go ?')

(1) See, for example, Hill's analysis, op. cit., p.145 ff.

(2) Incorporated from T.F. Mitchell's 'Syntagmatic Relations in Linguistic Analysis', Transactions of the Philological Society, 1958, pp. 107-8.

(iv) in free variation with *gc*, with a preceding verbal and a following gerund, (e.g. 'He doesn't like my/me doing it'.)

(v) in all other conditions (e.g. 'between you and me', 'A. Who's that ? B. Me'.)

A two-term number system is applicable to personal pronouns, though not to all members (second person is not marked for number). Gender is only marked in the third person singular.

As to the category of person, it is justifiable to distinguish three persons on the basis of the facts of accompaniment of single pronominal forms, on the one hand, and co-ordinate pronominal phrases on the other. Thus, for example, 'they', 'you' are excluded from the place occupied by 'we' in, say, 'We'll go, you and I', in which 'I' is a component element of the co-ordinate phrase. This is taken as justifying the common designation of 'I' and 'we' as 1st person. Moreover, gender + -s verbal ending provide criteria for linking 'he/she/it' in some way together as 3rd person. Justification for linking them with 'they, them, etc.' would then be provided by such relationships as those exhibited by

John went
He went
He and John went - I saw them there.

Similarly, relationships exhibited by

You'll be there, you and her

where 'they' and 'we' are excluded from the place occupied by 'you' justify the common designation 'you' as 2nd person.

Arabic Pronouns

Arabic has a comparable set of personal pronouns which are variable in terms of person, gender, and number, but have no corresponding case variation. The main difference between English and Arabic in this respect is that pronominal variation in form (in Arabic) exactly parallels variation of verbal form in the two tenses.

To the personal pronouns (in English) appearing in nominative conjoint form corresponds a structurally comparable set in Arabic

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>
First person	?ana	nuhna
Second person	(masc. ?unte (fen. ?unti	?untu
Third person	(masc. huwwe (fen. hiyye	hunna

To both the personal pronouns appearing in nominative absolute form, and to those in genitive conjoint form (in English),
(1)
correspond a set of pronominal suffixes.

(1) Correspondence is only partial and is limited to two contexts: 1. with a following nominal (in English) and a preceding nominal (in Arabic) (cf. my book ; ktaab-i) (in the case of pronouns in genitive conjoint form); 2. with a preceding finite verb (in both English and Arabic) (cf. he saw her ; saaf-ha) (in the case of pronouns in nominative absolute form)

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>
1st person	ni/i	na
2nd person	{ masc. ak fem. ek	kon
3rd person	{ masc. o fem. a/ha	on/hon

Examples are:

šaafni (he saw me)
šaafuaha (they saw her)

?alami (my pen)
?alamak (your pen)

The fact that one set of pronominal suffixes (in Arabic) corresponds to both the nominative absolute and the genitive conjoint forms (in English) constitutes a conflict between the two languages which accounts for mistakes like the following:

@ He gave our a present
@ This is them books

The English pronouns in genitive absolute form are matched in Arabic by the form 'taba9' to which are appended the set of pronominal suffixes, e.g.

haada lbeet taba9na
(this house is ours)

taba9kon ?a9la mun taba9na
(yours is more expensive than ours)

While the 'taba9' set covers the range of pronouns in genitive absolute form in English, the opposite is not true, since 'taba9'-forms have a distributional characteristic which is not matched by pronouns in genitive absolute form in English. Thus 'taba9'-forms commonly occur following a definite noun (sc. a noun associated with the definite article), whereas an indefinite noun is simply followed by a pronominal suffix; it is a rule of Arabic that a noun may not be defined more than once, the definite article and a pronominal suffix are both definite markers and are therefore mutually exclusive. Cf.

ktaabi
(my book)

luktaab taba9i
(literally: the book mine)

In the light of the above facts of distribution, the following mistakes are readily accounted for:

- ⊗ The garden ours is beautiful
- ⊗ The government bought the house theirs:

the above mistakes reflecting Arabic

jjneene taba9na Hulwe
lHukuume štareet ulbeet taba9hon.

English Reflexive Pronouns

Reflexive pronouns in English are formally invariable words which typically occupy complement and post-prepositional positions. They agree with the subject of the sentence in person, number, and gender. The forms are, myself, ourselves, yourself, yourselves, himself, herself, itself, themselves. Examples are:

He shot himself.
She looked at herself in the glass.

The same set of pronouns have a distinct function as 'subject intensifiers', occurring immediately after the noun or the related personal pronoun, after the complement, or, rarely, before the subject. As their name indicates, the intensifiers differ from the reflexives in that they have an adjunct function, whereas the reflexives constitute an indispensable sentence element. Examples are:

I myself posted the letter.
I posted the letter myself.

Corresponding to the reflexive pronouns, Arabic has a set of forms as follows:

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>
1st person.	nafsi	nafsna
2nd person	{ masc. nafsak fem. nafsek	nafskon
3rd person	{ masc. nafso fem. nafsana/nafsana	nafson/nafshon

There is a striking contrast between these forms and their English counterparts in the plural. Whereas 'nafs', which corresponds to English 'self' is invariable, 'self' in English appears as 'selves' in the plural. Hence, speakers of Arabic transfer the invariability of 'nafs' to 'self' when using English and say or write:

- ⊗ They saw themselves in the picture.
- ⊗ We hurt ourselves.

There is still another source of difficulty speakers of Arabic encounter in their use of English reflexives. The anomaly reflected by the first half of the third person forms (himself, themselves) in relation to the other forms (myself, yourself, etc..), being unmatched in Arabic, gives rise to the wrong, but analogically correct, forms (hisself, theirselves) (Note that these forms appear in dialectal and sub-standard English). Attested mistakes like the following

corroborate this prediction:

- ③ They are deceiving themselves if they think....
- ③ He wounded himself when he was shaving.

The English intensifiers are matched in Arabic by the same 'nafs' forms to which 'bi' (by, with) is prefixed.

Examples are:

?ana binafsi 9aToto luktaab
(I myself gave him the book)

huwwe katabo binafso
(He wrote it himself)

Since Arabic prefixes 'bi' (by, with) to the reflexive forms where English uses the same set of forms as intensifiers, speakers of Arabic tend to transfer their habits into English and the following mistakes are attested in the corpus:

- ③ I by myself saw him when he fell.
- ③ Malak by herself told me the news.
- ③ The teacher by himself said it is difficult

no distinction being made in Arabic to parallel English 'I did it myself' and 'I did it by myself'.

Relatives

The relatives who, whom, whose, that, which, are close to personal pronouns in morphological and syntactical behaviour. In their classification the terminology of case and gender (1) can be appropriately used. Gender distinction here, however, differs from that appropriate to nouns or personal pronouns, being a two-term system, human and non-human.

'Who' (whom, whose) are 'human' forms; 'which', 'non-human'. Case distinction applies to 'who', which has a subjective form 'who', and objective form 'whom' and a genitive form 'whose'; 'which' is a case-invariable form.

The characteristic syntactic function of the relatives (2) is that of linking and downgrading, to use Hill's terminology. Downgrading consists of a 'reduction of status', for instance from that of independent sentence to that of a sentence element within a longer sentence. Thus 'the man came to dinner' can be

(1) Gender is a category of concord, not just a means of classifying nouns. Forms like 'duchess' may be considered "feminine", not because of '-ess' but because of the regular concordial association of the form with 'she, her', etc. to the exclusion of other pronominal forms. This is also why gender is recognizable in relation to he/she/it.

(2) Op. cit., chapter 19.

downgraded to the status of a single sentence element by the addition of 'who' and placement in a longer construction:

'The man who came to dinner broke his arm'

Linking is exemplified in the so-called non-restrictive clause, which should be distinguished from the restrictive clause above. In Quirk's words:

" Restricted clauses... are linked to their antecedents by close syntactic juncture, by unity of intonation contour, and by continuity of the degree of loudness. In contrast, non-restrictive clauses are characterized by open juncture (recognized, together with the following features, by a comma in writing), a fresh intonation contour, and a change (especially a diminution) in the degree of loudness." (1)

Examples of non-restrictive clauses are:

'It is past one o'clock, so there are few visitors about, which seems to make the coincidence a very striking one indeed.'

'I told John, who told his brother, and he told his wife.'

A further relative form, the invariable 'that', is grammatically freely variant with the other relatives, except

(1) Randolph Quirk, 'Relative Clauses in Educated Spoken English', English Studies, Vol. XXXVIII, p.101.

in non-restrictive clauses, where it hardly ever occurs, and in pre-prepositional position. Cf.

'The candidate who/that has passed his examinations must apply to the Master of the Rolls for admission.

'There were few people whom/that he would address as 'sir' '

'The mists which/that sometimes cover the top of the island obscured the light.'

In relative clauses where the relative pronoun would have been the object or the object of a preposition, the relative may be omitted, e.g.

How much was it (that) he stole ?
The family (whom) he lived with simply adored him.

Clauses where the relative is omitted are called 'Contact-clauses' by Jespersen.

" Relative clauses without any connecting word are here called 'contact-clauses', because what characterizes them is the close contact in sound and sense between the clause and what precedes it: in sentences like 'this is the boy we spoke of' and 'he falls in love with all the girls he sees,' the words 'the boy' and 'all the girls' are felt to be just as intimately connected with what follows as with what precedes them. No pause is possible before a contact-clause."⁽¹⁾

The most relevant facts pertaining to the use of relatives in English (from a contrastive point of view) have now been outlined. Comparable facts of Arabic are as follows:

(1) Op. cit. p. 360

Arabic has only one invariable form 'yalli', whose distribution covers the range of the five English forms (who, whom, whose, which, that) together with other functions which will be discussed below and which are not paralleled by English forms. Examples are:

1. kul uTTullaab Habbu l?ustaaz. yalli ?alqa lmuHaaDara
(All the students liked the professor who gave the lecture)
2. ba9ref lbunt yalli 9azamtha
(I know the girl whom you invited)
3. ?areet ulkutub yalli ?ultullak 9aleehon ?
(Have you read the books which I told you about ?)
4. 9aTiini luktaab yalli julutto zar?a
(Give me the book whose cover is blue)
5. šufna yalli rubeH uljaa?ize
(We saw (the one) who won the prize)

The above examples reveal a number of features which are interesting from a contrastive point of view. These will be enumerated below under five sections (A, B, C, D, E) and their contrastive implications will be dealt with subsequently.

A. In (1) 'yalli' may be regarded as the subject of the relative clause and the whole sentences as a transformational compounding (by the substitution of 'yalli' for 'l?ustaaz' in the second base-sentence) of the two sentences 'kul uTTullaab Habbu l?ustaaz' and 'l?ustaaz ?alqa lmuHaadara'.

inction in the form of the relative in English is superfluous from the point of view of the learner, who is likely to confuse the different forms as in

- ⊙ I know the one whom told you.
- ⊙ The student who you have given the notes...

The same applies to the use of the discontinuous element 'yalli'... pronominal suffix' in contexts where English requires the form 'whose', which is mutually exclusive with the pronominal forms (my, your, etc...) which were found to be partially comparable to Arabic pronominal suffixes (see p.111). Transferring the discontinuous 'yalli ... pronominal suffix' to English leads to the following attested mistakes:

- ⊙ This is the man whom you used his car yesterday.
- ⊙ These people who their lands wait for them...

which reflect Arabic

haada rrujjaal yalli sta9malt sayyaarto mbaareH
 ha nnaas yalli ?arDon btuntuZurhon

B. Mistakes related to the superfluous use of pronouns in the relative clause.

The fact that when 'yalli' functions as object or object of a preposition in the relative piece, the latter must contain a pronominal suffix relating to the antecedent,

accounts for the superfluous use of personal pronouns in the following attested mistakes:

- ⓐ My father is the one whom I owe him
- ⓑ The friend whom you have given him your love...
- ⓒ The girl whom I depended on her betrayed me.

C. Mistakes related to gender distinction

Because 'yalli' has no gender distinction in Arabic, some formal distinctions in English may confuse speakers of Arabic, who make the following mistakes:

- ⓐ The girl which I like best ...
- ⓑ The house whom we bought...

D. Mistakes related to the use of a relative without a preceding antecedent.

Since 'yalli' can be used without a preceding antecedent, a transfer of this characteristic to English relatives accounts for the following mistakes:

- ⓐ Who reads this poem feels ...
- ⓑ ... and helping who need help
- ⓒ Who hasn't good taste cannot appreciate literature.

which correspond to

yalli byi?ra ha l?aSiide byuš9or
 w ysaa9ed yalli byuHtaaj la musaa9ade
 yaM maa 9ando zoo? salim maa byi?dor yutzawwa? ul?adab

Cf. however in this connection, the comparable distribution of 'yalli' and the English compound relative pronouns in -ever,

Whoever reads this poem feels...
... and helping whoever needs help.

E. Mistakes related to the definite-indefinite opposition of the antecedent

1. buddi rraadyo yalli bijjib kul lumHaTTaant
(I want the radio that receives all stations)
2. buddi raadyo yjjib kul lumHaTTaant
(I want a radio (that) receives all stations)

A comparison of 1 and 2 shows that 'yalli' is used when the antecedent is definite (in 1); and that it is not used when the antecedent is indefinite (in 2). Now since the definite-indefinite opposition is irrelevant in this context in English, the relative being used in contexts corresponding to both those in which Arabic has a definite or an indefinite antecedent, transfer of the Arabic distributional characteristic results in such frequent mistakes as the following attested ones:

- ① The women in the past were no more than wives wash and look after children.
- ② I was in touch with a group used to swim.
- ③ Every man asks for success must work hard.

In the following cases, conflict results from characteristics of English which are not paralleled in Arabic. Reference is made to the so-called 'zero-relative' and to 'non-restrictive' clauses.

It has been pointed out that the relative may be omitted when it would have been the object or the object of a preposition in the relative clause. While it is possible to speak of a 'zero-relative' or of an optional omission of the relative in English, no such omission is possible in comparable contexts in Arabic. Thus in sentences like the following: 'The man you saw yesterday robbed a bank' the absence, so to speak, of the relative is extremely puzzling to the native speaker of Arabic, and hinders his comprehension because he expects a relative to link the relative clause in this context.

Arabic having no comparable non-restrictive clauses, English non-restrictive clauses constitute an obstacle for speakers of Arabic. This happens especially when the antecedent is not a word or a phrase, but a whole clause. In contexts where English has a non-restrictive clause Arabic either uses an ordinary relative clause, which fails to bring out the subtle distinction conveyed by the English non-restrictive clause; or starts a fresh sentence and dispenses with the relative pronoun altogether. ⁽¹⁾ Examples are:

xass wazno 9ašara kilo. w handa šii ktir bifido
(He lost ten kilogrammes, which will do him a lot of good.)

(1) Written Arabic seems to have been influenced by English

English Interrogative Pronouns

Items belonging to a closed system of question words in English are: who, whom, whose, what, why, when, and how. Of these the first four are usually called interrogative pronouns; and the last three, interrogative adverbs. All may be associated with a postposed intensifier '-over'. The same forms are also used as clause linking words, as in:

I know who won

He loves the girl whose father inherited a fortune

In the first example 'who' introduces a noun clause; in the second example 'whose' introduces a relative adjective clause. The distinction between the two kinds of clauses introduced by these question words is important from a contrastive point of view, as will be seen below, comparable structures in Arabic being characterised by the use of different forms.

cont.

through translations in this particular case. It is very common nowadays to find clauses which are reminiscent of English non-restrictive clauses, e.g. qurīḡa jarasuhu fī waqtin mutaʿaxxirin minn llayl, lʔamru llaḡīl ʔazḡajahu (His bell was rung late at night, which (literally: the thing which) disturbed him. This pattern has become common enough for students to assimilate in Arabic and thus can be resorted to in the teaching situation to help them understand non-restrictive clauses in English.

Arabic Interrogative Pronouns

Arabic has a set of question words which correspond to English interrogative pronouns. They are: min (who/whom), ?anu (which), ?uu (what). Examples are:

min rubeH uljaa?izo ?
(Who won the prize ?)

ma9 min raah wa?el ?
(With whom did Wael go ?)

?anu butfaDDel ?
(Which do you prefer ?)

?uu ?tareet ?
(What did you buy ?)

These interrogative pronouns can be followed by the relative 'yalli', e.g.

min yalli ?allak ?
(Who is it that told you ?)

?anu yalli 9ajabak ?
(Which is the one that appealed to you ?)

?uu yalli jubto ma9ak ?
(What is it you brought with you ?)

The same forms can also introduce noun clauses, e.g.

Hazart min rubeH uljaa?izo
(I guessed who won the prize)

nsiit ?anu butfaDDel
(I forgot which you prefer)

?ulli šuu štareot
(Say what you bought)

However, in contexts where English forms introduce an adjective clause whose antecedent is definite, Arabic makes use of 'yalli' and not the above question words. Cf.

ba9ref min ?uja
(I know who came)

ba9ref uššaxš yalli ?uja
(I know the person who came)

Contrastive implications

The contrastive implications and the resulting problems that face speakers of Arabic can be summarised as follows:

1. Whereas English makes use of homophonous wh-forms to introduce adjective clauses and noun clauses, and as question words, the last two functions in Arabic are performed by a special set of forms and not by the relative 'yalli'. Thus,

The man <u>who</u> died was great	rrijjaal <u>yalli</u> maat kaan 9aZiin
<u>Who</u> died ?	<u>min</u> maat ?
<u>Who</u> did you see ?	<u>min</u> šuft ?
I know <u>who</u> died	ba9ref <u>min</u> maat.

2. The fact that 'yalli' can follow some of the question words in Arabic (min, ?anu, šuu) constitutes a conflict with

English and gives rise to mistakes like the following:

- Q What which made you sad ?
- Q Which who won the battle ?

which reflect Arabic

- šuu yalli xallaak tuz9al ?
- ?enu yalli rubeH ulma9rako ?

Adjuncts

It has been seen that noun phrases consist of a head and a modifier (see p. 99). In section (1), head-words functioning in the noun phrase were considered. The present section will be devoted to the forms occurring in the second part of the noun phrase, namely, to modifiers or adjuncts.

Adjuncts occurring in the noun phrase may be divided into two main classes: closed system items, which will be called 'determiners', and open-class items, which will be called 'adjectives'. Finer sub-classification will be made within both classes.

A. Determiners

The term 'determiner' is appropriately given to words which serve to identify the head of the phrase as a noun. Determiners include: the definite and indefinite articles, genitive conjoint pronominal forms, variable determiner-pronouns, invariable determiner-pronouns, and noun-phrase initiators.⁽¹⁾

(1) I have drawn on Strang, op. cit., chapter VII in my treatment of adjuncts.

Articles

Among forms classified as determiners, those to which traditionally the name 'articles' is given may be considered central representatives of the class since they always appear as adjuncts to a following noun or noun-like form or to a sequence of forms which constitute the head part of the noun phrase. There are two mutually exclusive articles in English: 'the' and 'a' / 'an' . The first is known as the 'definite article', the second, as the 'indefinite article' .⁽¹⁾

The discussion of the distribution of the articles will go hand in hand with a discussion of the definite article in Arabic in order to reveal the points of difference behind the apparent similarities that make the use of the term 'definite article', to designate the Arabic and the English articles, very tempting indeed.⁽²⁾

From the outset a striking difference between the articles in the two languages relates to the fact that in English the article must be understood within the framework of a three-term system of colligational possibilities with nouns. Thus a noun

(1) The discussion of the articles draws heavily on Paul Christophersen's 'The Articles: a study of their theory and use in English', Rinar Munksgaard, Copenhagen, 1959, though the notional criteria therein have been translated into formal terms.

(2) The use of the English articles is a source of endless troubles to speakers of Arabic. This being the case, the

can appear without any article (zero-form): ice, fire; with 'a'/'an' : a book, an apple; and with 'the' : the cake, the pen. Combined with number contrasts five possibilities result. ⁽¹⁾

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>
zero-form	cake	cakes <i>cakes</i>
a-form	a cake	cakes
the-form	the cake	the cakes

Only a small number of nouns actually have the above five possibilities in their formal scatter. A large sub-class of nouns do not as a rule appear in zero-form in the singular: (book, page, boy). ⁽²⁾ Another sub-class generally has neither a-form nor plural form (butter, music, leisure). ⁽³⁾ Still another sub-class mostly appears in one form only: ⁽⁴⁾ ⁽⁵⁾ (John, London, the equator, The United States).

cont.

disproportionately longer treatment of the articles relative to the other items seems justifiable.

- (1) Some may wish to regard, say, 'some', 'any' or the demonstrative forms 'this', 'that', etc., which are mutually exclusive with the articles, as classifiable with 'a'/'an', 'the'. But though the forms in question behave like the articles with nouns or noun-like forms, the articles are distinguished by the fact that they cannot occur as heads. Thus we can have 'Some men prefer solitude' or 'Some prefer solitude' but only 'The men prefer solitude' and not 'The prefer solitude'. See below, however.
- (2) Cf., however, 'Boy ! ' in a vocative context.
- (3) Cf., however, 'It's a-wonderful butter'
- (4) Cf., however, 'There are dozens of Johns in the directory'
- (5) Cf., however, 'The Londons of this world'.

On the basis of the possible forms a noun can appear in, a possible classification of nouns yields five sub-
 (1)
 classes.

<u>Sub- Class 1</u>	<u>Sub- Class 2</u>	<u>Sub- Class 3</u>	<u>Sub- Class 4</u>	<u>Sub- Class 5</u>
cake	-	butter	John	-
a cake	a book	-	-	-
the cake	the book	the butter	-	the Equator
cakes	books	-	-	-
the cakes	the books	-	-	-

(2)

In Arabic, the article operates in a two-term system:

- (1) The above classification can be objected to on the grounds that it implies a belief that a form has the same grammatical value wherever it occurs. Cf. 'I eat an egg every day' and 'There is egg on your tie'. A more appropriate and interesting classification, from a contrastive point of view, for handling the facts relating to the distribution of the articles is that of countable vs. uncountable nouns, this being applicable to both English and Arabic. See p. 112 ff.
- (2) The article appears in different shapes according to the following morphophonological rules:
1. a. Before initial nouns, numerals, or adjectives beginning with a single consonant of the following (b, m, f, k, q, x, g, h, ʒ, h, ʔ, w, y) it appears as 'l', e.g. beet : lbeet, maraD : lmaraD, furun : lfurun.
 - b. When words of the above types are preceded by a word ending in a consonant, the article appears as 'ul', e.g. baab beet : baab ulbeet.
 - c. When a word begins with a cluster of consonants, the first member of which is one of the above consonants, .../...

zero-form and definite form. Combined with number contrasts a countable noun can have the following possibilities:

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Dual</u>	<u>Plural</u>
Zero-form	baab	baabeen	bwaab
Definite form	lbaab	lbaabeen	lubwaab

Here again it is possible to classify nouns according to the possible forms in which they may appear into the following sub-classes:

	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>
zero-form	baab baabeen bwaab	šajaa9a	yuusof
definite-form	lbaab lbaabeen lubwaab	ššajaa9a	

cont.

the article takes the shape of 'lu', e.g. ktaab : luktaab, HŠaan : luHŠaan, xzaane : luxzaane.

2. a. With words beginning with a single consonant of the following (t, d, T, D, s, z, Š, Z, r, Š, j) it takes the shape of the initial consonant of the word it is compounded with, e.g. šams : ššams, sukkar : ssukkar, rujjaal : rrujjjaal.

b. When words of the type described under 2.a. are preceded by a word ending in a consonant, or when words begin with a cluster of consonants, the first member of which is one of the consonants mentioned under 2.a., the article takes the shape of the initial consonant with a preceding 'u', e.g. Tul9ot uššams, biHubb ussahar.

Sub-class 1 comprises countable nouns; sub-class 2 consists of uncountable nouns; and sub-class 3 includes proper nouns.

Other intersecting classifications would take into account the sub-class of collectives, which is characterized by five categories of number as opposed to three in the case of, say, countable nouns. Cf.

šajar (collective), šajara (singulative), šajartecn (dual), šajaraat (little plural), ?ašjaar (big plural)

However, the distribution of the articles from a contrastive point of view can be best described in terms of their associability with two sub-classes of nouns: countables and uncountables, both in English and Arabic, uncountables being distinguished from countables, in both languages, by reason of their lack of number variation. First the associability of the articles with unmodified nouns will be considered, and subsequently the associability of the particles with nouns modified by adjuncts.

Singular

'The' with countables:

For a consideration of the associability of 'the' with countables it is necessary to go both beyond the sentence and within the sentence. 'The' can colligate with a countable noun after the countable noun has previously occurred

in the utterance (context of 'further mention'). This seems to be the formal basis for the notional statement that 'the' is used with a countable when reference is made to a particular individual noun known to both speaker and hearer (or writer and reader), e.g.

'Once upon a time there lived an old tailor₁ in a small village. The tailor₂ was known all over the village as 'Old Harry'.'

The above notional type of statement goes on to say that knowledge of a particular individual can be not only contextually explicit, as in the above example, but also contextually implicit (after mentioning a book we can talk of 'the author'), or situationally known (in the same state: the king, the government).

In formal terms, this may be expressed partly collocationally and partly grammatically. Within the frame 'the N_1 of a N_2 ' (frequently transposable as 'a N_2-N_1 ') N_1 and N_2 as a rule form a collocational unit, as in 'the handle of a door' (cf. a door-handle), 'the author of a book'. The descriptive analysis necessary to exploit, say, the distinction between 'the handle of a door : a door-handle', on the one hand, and 'the handle of the door : the door-handle', on the other, would far exceed the intended scope of this thesis,

but the inadequacy of the notional definition has perhaps been sufficiently demonstrated.

In the same way, the explanation of the use of 'the' in, say, 'the Queen of England' is more likely to appear from intralingual comparison with such texts as 'Queen Elizabeth', 'The Queen Elizabeth', 'Elizabeth the First', 'the first Elizabeth' and so on, but the analysis remains - regrettably - still to be undertaken. Similarly, contrasts of the kind between, say, 'faith' and 'the Faith' (stable in collocational terms) would justify the recognition of 'Faith' as one member of a class of proper nouns regularly associated with the article. Other examples would be (the) Queen, (the) Government, etc. The old notional explanation may well provide a satisfactory mnemonic summing up of relationships in an analysis that has not yet been undertaken.

The above use of 'the' in association with countable nouns contrasts with another use in which 'the' is freely variant with both the a-form and the zero-form in the plural. Reference is made to the associability of 'the' with a countable noun in what is known as the 'generic use', of.

The lion is stronger than the tiger
 A lion is stronger than a tiger
 Lions are stronger than tigers.

In Arabic, countables are used with the article in comparable cases, i.e. 1. with reference to a particular individual known to both speaker and hearer (or writer and reader) whether knowledge is contextually explicit (a), contextually implicit (b), or situationally known (c); and 2. in what is known as the 'generic use'. Examples are:

1. a) kaan fii rujjaal byuštugel xayyaat. yoom mun ulʔayyaam nuzel urrujjaal 9a ssuu?
- b) mbaareH ʔareet ktaab 9am yuśrah ulmuʔallof fii....
- c) staqaalet ulwazaara
2. lʔasad ʔaʔwa mun unnumur

The last example in Arabic is freely variant with the definite-form in the plural. Cf.

luʔsuud ʔaʔwa mun unnumura

So far no conflict is involved between English and Arabic.

'A' with countables:

The use of a-form can be described negatively: a singular countable noun appears in a-form unless there is a determining factor, such as the factors considered in connection with the appearance of singular countables in the-form, which prevents it from appearing in a-form(see also below). This is again what lies behind the notional statement that the a-form of

a countable refers to an individual being taken more or less at random out of a whole class of such objects as against a particular individual of a countable when it is used in its the-form.

On the other hand, the a-form is freely variant with the the-form of a countable in sentences of the equational type, i.e. those having the copulative verb 'to be'.

Thus we can say both

'A motor-car (or the motor-car) is a practical means of conveyance.'

but only

'The motor-car has become very popular during the the last quarter of a century.'

Arabic, by sharp contrast, has no indefinite article corresponding to 'a'/'an' in English, but makes use of both the definite and zero-forms where English requires an a-form. Thus a-form in English corresponds to zero-form in Arabic in:

štareet sayyaara jdiide
(I bought a new car)

and to the-form in:

ssayyara wasiile 9amaliyye la ssafar
(A motor-car is a practical means of conveyance)

The use of the definite form in Arabic in the last example relates not only to the 'generic use' (formally: free variation of the singular definite form with the

plural form . Cf. ssayyaaraat wasiile 9amaliyye la ssafar (Motor-cars are a practical means of conveyance)) but also to a more general characteristic of Arabic, namely, that all nouns in Arabic, whether countable or uncountable, singular, dual, or plural, must be definite when occurring in initial position.

The contrastive implications that emerge from the facts of English and Arabic so far relate to the fact that a-form in English corresponds to a zero-form in Arabic, Arabic having no indefinite article. Herein lies a conflict between the two languages since transfer of Arabic zero-form where English requires a-form results in the following attested mistakes:

- ⊗ It is important to learn foreign language.
- ⊗ But after short time I began
- ⊗ They lived happy life.

Uncountables

Uncountables in English appear in zero-form and the-form only.

Zero-form: Lead is heavier than iron

History never repeats itself

The-form : She poured some water into a kettle and put it on the fire; half a minute later the water was boiling.

The distribution of the definite article with uncountables in Arabic can be best described with reference to the position the uncountable occupies in the sentence.

In 'subject position', an uncountable must be definite, i.e. associated with the definite article, a pronominal suffix, or in construct with a following definite noun. Examples are:

lHadiid ?axaff mun urrSaaS
(Iron is lighter than lead)

ŠaHHtak btuswa ddunye
(Your health is worth all the world)

Šajaa9et 9antar maŠhuura
(Antar's courage is renowned)

Since English uncountables appear ^{only} in their zero-form in this ^{context} position, we have a clear conflict between English and Arabic reflected by an abundance of attested mistakes like the following:

- ⊗ The poverty prevented him from completing his studies.
- ⊗ The learning in this university ...
- ⊗ If the luck helps me ...

which are translations of Arabic

lfa9ur mana9o ykammal diraasto
l9ulum fii ha ljaam9a ...
?iza lHaZZ saa9adni ...

In 'predicate position' (in nominal sentences), uncountables appear in zero-form. It has been found (see pp. 37 ff.) that the predicate of a nominal sentence corresponds to the subjective complement in English. Now since in both languages uncountables appear in zero-form in this context, no problem arises. Examples are:

SSaHHa sa9aade
(Health is happiness)

ljusur Hadiid
(The bridge is (made of) iron)

In 'object position' uncountables appear in zero-form unless there is a determining factor which prevents them from doing so. The determining factors are of two kinds. The first kind relates to the same factors mentioned in connection with the appearance of countables in the-form (see p.46). Examples are:

(In a cooking recipe) : butjiibi šwayyet zubde w šwayyet ruzz butHuTTihon bu TTanjara w ba9deen btuxulTi zzubde ma9 urruzz.

(You take some butter and some rice and you put them in a cooking pot, then you mix the butter with the rice.)

The second kind of determining factor^c is connected with the preceding verb. With some verbs in Arabic the object must be definite regardless of any other determining factor. With certain verbs like Habb (he loved), kureh (he hated), šajja9 (he encouraged), sta9mal (he used), uncountable nouns operating

as objects to these verbs cannot appear in indefinite form.

Thus we can have

štara zubde
(He bought butter)

and

biHubb uzzubde
(He likes butter)

but never

⊗ biHubb zubde

In the following examples all the underlined uncountables cannot appear in zero-form, but ^{must} be in definite form:

waaʔel byukrah ulma9karoona
(Wael hates macaroni)
(cf. 'waaʔel byaakol ma9karoona kul yoom'
Wael eats macaroni every day)

maysa butHubb ul9aSiir
(Maise likes juice)

maa bimayyex lxeer mun uššarr
(He doesn't distinguish good from evil)

ddawle butšajje9 ulfann
(The state encourages art)

sta9mal ulkuzub
(He resorted to lying)

Since English uncountables do not necessarily appear in the-form in object position, the preceding verb having no comparable effect on the object as it is the case in Arabic, conflict gives rise to mistakes of the following type:

⊗ I add the benefit to the pleasure

⊗ She wants the eternal love

which reflect Arabic:

bujma9 ulfaa?ide w ullazza
 budda lHubb ul?abadi

When preceded by prepositions, uncountables appear in their definite form in almost all cases. Cases where uncountables do appear in zero-form will be considered below. Examples are:

xood Hab^bt^aeen ma9 ul?kul
 (Take two tablets with meals)

bxaaf mun ulmaraD
 (I am afraid of sickness)

9am tuhrob mun ulwaaqe9
 (You are running from reality)

This fact of distribution of the article accounts for the following mistakes:

- ⊗ I have never worked in the teaching.
- ⊗ I was going to burst with the laughter

which are 'literal' translation of Arabic

?ana 9umri maa ŗtaGalt bi tta9liim
 Kunt raH Tu?? mun uDDuHuk

Examples of uncountables appearing in zero-form when preceded by prepositions are not easy to find. Leaving aside examples like : lbaab maSnuu9 mun Hadiid (the door is made of iron) all others seem to comprise a verb followed by an uncountable with a preceding preposition 'bi' in an

adverbial phrase. Examples are:

9aamalon bi luTuf
(He treated them with kindness)

Haakaahon bi GaDab
(He spoke to them angrily)

The above examples of bi + uncountable noun represents a productive pattern especially in educated spoken Arabic and it is tempting to handle such cases by setting up a sub-class of adverbs consisting of a sub-class of uncountables (abstract nouns) and consider 'bi' as a marker of such adverbial sub-class (see p. 351).

This last pattern offers no problems and it ^{maybe} is suspected to ~~that it might~~ be a loan from English to Arabic, as the pattern in question reflects comparable examples in English like: 'he speaks with accuracy', 'he worked with determination'.

In 'fii' and 'particle' sentences (see pp. 11 ff) uncountables, as well as countables, appear in zero-form. Examples of uncountables are:

?orooppa fiiha ta9liim muxTalaT
(Europe has co-education)

maa kaan fii dawaam ktiir ussune
(There has not been much attendance this year)

9ando zaka xaareq
(He has extraordinary intelligence)

There is no conflict here, since 'fii' and 'particle' sentences correspond, in general, to English sentences of Type VII, in which uncountable nouns appear in zero-form, as the above examples show.

'fii' and 'particle' sentences correspond also to sentences of the type:

Nominal — verb 'to have' + noun

Examples are:

Ɔando šajaa9a ʔadabiiyye
(He has moral courage)

Ɔando labaaqa bi Hakyo
(He has tact in his speech)

Here again no conflict arises since English uncountable nouns also appear in zero-form.

Plurals

Only countable nouns are capable of number variation and can appear only in zero-form and the-form in English.

The zero-form of a countable in the plural resembles the zero-form of a countable in the singular in that it appears in this form unless there is some reason for its appearing in the-form (see pp. 145 ff.). Examples of the-form are:

He had bought us some presents for Christmas; but when Christmas came he could not find the presents

He ate all the apple he was given except the pira

Keep clear of the propellers

Examples of zero-form are:

'Thoughts are sometimes difficult to put into words.'
'We judge others according to results'

In the case of the use of the article with plural countables there is a one-to-one correspondence between English and Arabic. For whereas we have a three-term system in the case of English singular countable nouns, as opposed to a two-term system for Arabic singular countable nouns, in the case of plural countable nouns there is a two-term system for both English and Arabic: a zero-form and a the-form (a definite-form for Arabic).

As is the case with uncountables, the distribution of zero-forms and definite-forms of Arabic countable nouns is best described with reference to the position occupied by countables in the sentence.

In 'subject position', a countable, as well as any other noun, whether singular or plural, must be definite, e.g.

ddakakiin butsaker yoom uljum9a bi suuriyya
(Shops are closed on Friday in Syria)

ssinamaat maa btu9roD ?aflaam mmiiHa bu SSeof
(Cinemas do not show good films in the summer)

Here we have a case of conflict since English plural countables appear in zero-form in this context. This conflict gives rise to the following mistakes:

- ⊗ The flats are expensive in London.
- ⊗ The wives are well treated in our society.
- ⊗ The children are a joy to their parents.

In 'predicate position' (in nominal sentences) no conflict occurs since plural countable nouns appear in zero-form in both languages in comparable contexts (predicate, in the case of Arabic; and subjective complement, in the case of English).

Examples are:

wlaadi rjaal
(My children are men)

ljawaaʔez ʔlaam w kutub
(The prizes are pens and books)

In 'object position', however, plural countable nouns appear in both definite and zero-forms. They appear in zero-form unless there is a determining factor which prevents them from appearing in this form. The determining factors are comparable to those considered in connection with uncountable nouns (pp. 141 ff). Examples are:

Zero-form: štaru ʔasliHa
 (They bought weapons)

kuṣbu ʔaṣḍiqaaʔ
(They won friends)

No conflict occurs here.

- Definite-form: a. lamma kunt bi london stareet hadanya
w lamma ?jiit la ššaam jibt ulhadanya
ma9i.
(When I was in London I bought presents
and when I came to Damascus I brought
the presents with me)
- b. ?ubni biHubb ulkutub
(My son likes books)
- joozi byikrah ulHaflaat
(My husband hates parties)

No conflict arises under (a) where the plural countable is used in the definite-form in its second occurrence. But conflict does occur under (b) where the plural countable appears in definite-form after verbs requiring definite objects, unlike English where the verb has no comparable implication as to the associability of the article with the object. Attested mistakes reflecting this type of conflict are:

- ⊗ People love the dogs in England.
- ⊗ Moslems perform the prayers in the Mosque.

When preceded by prepositions, plural countables behave like uncountables, i.e. they appear in definite form, e.g.

mmaaxod nootaat bi lmuHaaDaraat
(We take notes in lectures)

yaaser bixaaf mun luklaab
(Yasser is afraid of dogs)

maa buddna nubHas bu TTuro?
(We don not want to discuss means)

Since English plural countables^{can} appear in zero-form when preceded by prepositions (unless there is a determining factor), we have a conflict between the two languages. Attested mistakes reflecting this conflict include:

- ⊗ The mosques is full with (sic) the prayers (prayers is used here for praying people (congregation))
- ⊗ which is not found in the Arabic books. (1)
- ⊗ English is used by the great majority of the politicians

In 'fii' and 'particle' sentences, which correspond to English sentences of Type VII or to sentences with the lexical verb 'to have', both singular and plural countables (as well as uncountables) appear in zero-form and cause no problems since nouns in both languages appear in zero-form in this context. Moreover, they show a great deal of similarity with accompanying forms such as 'ktiir' (many), šwayyet (a few), etc. Examples are:

fii muZħaraat ktiir bi šawaare9 ulbalad
(There are many demonstrations in the streets of the city)

9andi šwayyet mulaaħaZaat buddi ʔullak 9aleehon
(I have a few remarks to tell you)

(1) Cf., however, 'English is used by the great majority of the politicians (of this country). See also below.

ʒandi ʔaxbaar ʒan ʔaxuuk
 (I have news about your brother)

Adjuncts with Countables

When countables are modified by an adjunct, the articles 'the' and 'a' colligate with the whole phrase, not with the head-word only, e.g.

The great Man is not recognized as a God any more.
 A burnt child dreads the fire.

In comparable contexts in Arabic, we have a radical difference, as the different distribution of the definite article serves to distinguish what are otherwise comparable structures (see pp.4 ff.), i.e. structures whose constituents belong to identical word-classes. Thus if we consider the colligation

Noun — Adjective

different constructions obtain according to whether the article is associated with the noun or with both the noun and the adjective. Cf.

1. lwalad mhazzab
 (The boy is polite)
2. lwalad lumhazzab
 (the polite boy)

The first example is a sentence (a nominal sentence); the second, a noun phrase which differs from English in that the article appears with both the head and with the adjunct

of the noun phrase. In phrases, then, of the noun-adjective type, there is concord (among such other categories as number and gender) in definiteness between the noun and the adjective, which is a major difference between English and Arabic.

Adjuncts with uncountables and plurals

As is the case with singular countables, when uncountables in English appear with adjuncts, the article belongs to the whole phrase, and the distribution of the article is governed by the same rules as in the case of simple uncountables and plurals. The types distinguished above are recognized here, too.

Adjunct + uncountable in zero-form

The countables modified by an adjunct appear in zero-form unless there is a determining factor which prevents them from appearing in this form. This use corresponds to the generic, as opposed to the particular sense, in notional terms, e.g.

Cast iron contains more carbon than malleable iron.
Foreign influence finds its way peacefully.

Arabic differs diametrically in this case since both adjunct and uncountable must be definite in this context, e.g.

tta9aawan ulmuxles biHa??e? ulmu9jizaat
(Sincere co-operation achieves miracles)

tтарбиye lbeetiyye ?ahamm mun tarbiyet ulmadrase
(Home education is better than school education)

This difference gives rise to mistakes of the type:

- ⊗ The great poverty made him work very hardly (sic)
- ⊗ She wants the eternal love.

Adjunct + uncountable in the-form

Uncountables modified by an adjunct appear in the-form when reference is made to a particular sample, quantity or illustration of the uncountable (i.e. the thing denoted by the uncountable) known to the speaker and hearer (writer and reader) explicitly, implicitly, or situationally (see pp.146 ff)

Examples are:

We found some chocolate, but most of it was stale; so we gave the dog the stale chocolate and ate the rest ourselves (contextually explicit ; context of further mention)

(Wells talking of human sacrifices in Ancient Mexico):
'The public life, the national festivities, all turned on this fantastically horrible act' (contextually implicit)

The only conflict in comparable contexts in Arabic is that the article appears with both the uncountable and its adjunct. The first example may be translated thus :

la?eena šwayyet šukalnaTa laaken mu9Zamha kaan
manzuu9. fa 9aTeena ššukalnaTa^{manzuu9} la lkalb w ?akalna
lbaa?i.

Uncountables with following adjuncts

What applies to uncountables when preceded by adjuncts applies equally when they are followed by adjuncts. That is uncountables can appear in zero-form and the-form when followed by adjuncts. Examples of zero-form are:

Do you like tea with milk ?
She has power of persuasion.

Examples in the-form are:

There was only one cup of tea left in the pot. I took the tea that was left, and she made coffee for herself.

The Anglo-Saxon literature which reached us is, on the whole, the work of clerks.

In Arabic, nouns in general can be modified not only by adjectives in post-nominal position, but also by a following noun. The resulting construction can be definite or indefinite according to the concordial behaviour it exhibits in terms of definiteness-indefiniteness. Of.

1. šajaa9et 9antar / ššajaa9a taba9 9antar
2. šajaa9et uljundi / ššajaa9a taba9 uljundi
3. šajaa9et jundi

In 1 and 2 the constructions flanking the symbol / are in free variation, and are all definite. The first construction

in 1 is definite because the uncountable is modified by a proper noun. The first construction in 2 is also definite because the modifier is a definite noun. Thus although the uncountable in 1 and 2 is indefinite, yet the construction as a whole is definite, i.e. can occupy subject position. In 3 the uncountable is modified by an indefinite noun and the whole construction is 'indefinite'.

It will be noticed also that the modified uncountable can be definite (the second constructions in 1 and 2), in which case the form 'taba9' must be used between the noun and the modifier.

The first part of construction 1 corresponds to the genitive construction in English in which the modifier is a proper noun suffixed with {'s}. Since the article does not occur with either noun in either language no problem arises here.

So far, post nominal adjuncts in Arabic have been found to correspond to pre-nominal adjuncts in English. However, a post-nominal adjunct in Arabic that corresponds to a post-nominal in English is exemplified by the case of a noun modified by a clause or a relative piece, both ⁽¹⁾

(1) A clause in this sense is equivalent to a sentence reduced to the status of a sentence element. A relative piece is distinguished by the fact that it is introduced by the relative 'yalli'.

of which correspond to a relative clause in English. When the noun is indefinite it is modified by a clause juxtaposed without the relative 'yalli', e.g.

buddi raadyo yjiib kul lumHaTTaat
(I want a radio that receives all stations)

English requires a relative pronoun to link the relative clause to the noun in such context (see pp. 114 ff.). This divergence accounts for the following mistakes where no relatives have been used:

- ⊗ Language is a link associates people.
- ⊗ ..or if I met foreigners can't speak Arabic.
- ⊗ We have many poets have the same taste.

When the antecedent noun is definite, however, the relative pronoun must be used to link the modifying piece to the antecedent noun. This is comparable to English except for the form of the relative which is invariable in Arabic as against a variety of forms in English (see p. 111)

Genitive Determiners

The forms my, your, his, her, its, our, their, are parallel to the definite article in distribution and are close to the personal pronouns in form. ⁽¹⁾ They have been given different names

(1) See 'Pronouns' p. 115

each of which emphasized one side of their properties. The term 'Genitive Determiners' is a terminological compromise between 'Possessive Pronouns (conjoint form)⁽¹⁾', 'Possessive Determiners⁽²⁾', and 'Genitive Articles⁽³⁾'.

The term 'Genitive' relates them to the personal pronouns. The term 'Determiners' stresses the fact that they pattern like determiners, more specifically like articles, with which they form a mutually exclusive system. Of.

my / the apple
your / an apple

⊗ the my apple
⊗ a his friend.

Arabic has a comparable closed-class of pronominal suffixes. They are comparable in the sense that they are mutually exclusive with the definite article, and form a system with which the relations between terms is exactly parallel to those obtaining within the system of independent personal pronouns. These pronominal suffixes have been tabulated on page 112. As mentioned there, they cover the range of the nominal absolute forms of the personal pronouns (me, him, etc.), in association with a preceding verb or particle, as well as that of the genitive determiners with a preceding noun. Examples are:

-
- (1) Henry Sweet, 'A New English Grammar, Logical and Historical', Clarendon Press, Oxford, P.75.
(2) Palmer, op.cit., p. 68.
(3) Strang, op. cit., p.112

talifooni
(my telephone)

zaarni
(he visited me)
(1)

buddi šuufak
(I want to see you)

Since these pronominal suffixes are bound forms and are postfixed to nouns, (as well as verbs and particles) whereas the partially corresponding 'Genitive determiners' of English colligate with a following noun, a simple case of conflict arises and constitutes a minor learning problem, though at an elementary level. Cf.

ktaab-i
@ book my

The articles and the genitive determiners are characterized by the fact that they can function only as adjuncts in the noun-phrase. The remaining determiners differ from the previous ones in that they function not only as adjuncts but also as head-words. They may be called 'determiner-pronouns' and can be divided into three mutually exclusive groups.

(1) The forms 'buddi' , 'buddak', etc. pattern like verbs but differ from them in that they do not appear with the affixes that characterize verbs. Moreover, they must always appear with pronominal suffixes, and in this respect 'badd-' could be abstracted as a bound form.

Variable determiner-pronouns

This class contains only two members and is characterized by the fact that it alone among noun-phrase adjuncts exhibits concordial behaviour with the head in terms of number (singular and plural), as well as with the verb when appearing in subject position. This sub-class is labelled 'deictics' or 'demonstratives'. The two members are 'this', 'that' and their corresponding plural forms 'these', 'those'. Both members can be preceded by noun-phrase initiators (see below). Examples illustrating the characteristic distribution of these forms are:

1. Adjuncts

This book is interesting
 These books are interesting

2. Heads

This is not enough
 All these are not enough

A corresponding system of demonstratives in Arabic contrasts with English demonstratives in many respects, though certain general characteristics are shared between the two systems.

The most important common characteristic is the double role performed by demonstratives, which can function as adjuncts in noun-phrases, as in, haada lbceet muriH (this house is comfortable), or pronominally as heads, as in ,

haada mriih (this is comfortable). But first, more about demonstratives in Arabic.

Demonstratives form a system the terms of which exhibit number and, in the singular, gender variation. The system can be tabulated as follows:

Singular	(Masculine	haad/haada (this); hadaak (that)
	(Feminine	hayy/haadi (this); hadiik (that)
Plural	hadool	(these); hadunk (those)

The forms haad (haada), hayy (haadi), and hadool are freely variant with an invariable particle 'ha' when functioning as adjuncts before nouns. Cf.

haada lbarnaamej ?aHsan
 ha lbarnaamej ?aHsan
 (This programme is better)

A characteristic of Arabic demonstratives which is not shared by English demonstratives is the fact that all demonstratives in Arabic can precede or follow their heads. Thus

haada lwalad mal9uun
 (This boy is naughty)

is freely variant with

lwalad haada mal9uun.

A more important characteristic is the colligability of Arabic demonstratives with a definite or indefinite noun

so that two different constructions result according to whether the noun in the colligation is associated with the definite article or not. Thus with a noun associated with the definite article they function as adjuncts and the resulting construction is a noun-phrase, e.g.

haada luktaab
(this book)

hadool luwlaad
(these boys)

When colligating with an indefinite noun they are pronominal heads and the resulting construction is a sentence, e.g.

haada ktaab
(This is a book)

hadunk Harlir
(Those are silk)

It is clear that the most outstanding points of conflict between English and Arabic demonstratives relate to the fact that the latter, unlike the former, do not form a mutually exclusive system with the definite article but can co-occur with it; and that they may follow or precede their heads when they function as adjuncts. Given these contrastive features, it is possible to predict that speakers of Arabic will encounter two types of very elementary mistakes. The first occurs when both a demonstrative and the definite

article precede a noun, as in,

ⓐ This the watch is slow.

The second occurs when demonstratives are used post-nominally, as in,

ⓑ The picture this is nice.

Invariable determiner pronouns

Forms termed 'Invariable determiner pronouns' are grouped together because they share the general characteristics of functioning as heads and adjuncts in the noun-phrase and of having no number variation. But in spite of these general characteristics, there are finer distinctions among ^{the} items of the group. Members belonging to this sub-class are: any, each, either, enough, every, many, most, much, neither, some, such, and what. Cf.

- A. Any bed is better than no bed.
Each member brought his contribution.
Either method is good.
- B. This one is better than any I've ever seen.
 I gave two to each.
 I don't like either.

In adjunct function, these items, with some exceptions, are mutually exclusive with the articles and the initiators (all, both, half). Thus we can have

The good eating apples.
 Some good eating apples.
 Any good eating apples.

but not

⊙ The each good eating apples.
 ⊙ A some good eating apples.

'Many', 'such' and 'what' are not mutually exclusive with the indefinite article 'a'/'an', and 'neither' can also appear with the definite article. Cf.

Many a good wine has been ruined by heating it.
 What a pretty house !
 I've never heard of such a case.

There are still other distinctions among these items. Thus 'any', 'more', 'enough', 'most', 'such', and 'what' colligate with singular and plural constructions. Cf.

- A. Any mechanic could repair that.
Such an arrangement was necessary.
 I don't know what name they've given the baby.
- B. Any errors that appear will be called to your attention.
Such clothes as we had were not appropriate.
What trips we take are relatively uninteresting.

'Each', 'either', 'every', 'much', 'neither' colligate only with non-plural constructions, e.g.

I spoke to each person separately.
 You can take either book.
 He called at every house in the street.

'Many' colligates only with plural constructions (cf. however, 'many a man has tried and failed'), e.g.

she has many reasons to distrust us.
George's many friends will miss him.

Within the non-plural group, all items colligate with singular countables except 'much', which colligates only with uncountables, e.g.

there isn't much wood in the building.

another kind of limitation is that affirmatively 'some' occurs only in positive constructions, while 'any' occurs in the corresponding negative pattern. The two answers,

'I've got some'
'I haven't got any'

both function in relation to the two questions,

'Have you got some?'
'Have you got any?'

Corresponding items in Arabic differ from English¹⁰ Variable determiner pronouns, the differences being in respect to the number of items and their different colligational possibilities with reference to the definite article, the number of the head-noun with which they colligate and its relative position.

These items are: ?ay (any/neither), kul (each), kifanyo (enough), ktiir (many/much), ?aktar (more/most), ba9D (some), ?wayyot (some), ši (some), ?ay (what).

It should be pointed out that there^{are} so many differences in the behaviour of these Arabic items that it is difficult to generalize about them.

Thus while most of them are invariable, 'ktiir' can appear in feminine as well as in plural forms (cf. majallat ktiire (many magazines); ktiirin yalli najahu bu lfaHS (many are those who passed the exam)).

Moreover, while most of them occur only as adjuncts, ba9D (some) and ktiir (many/much) can function both as heads and as adjuncts. (Cf. ba9D unnaas fuhmu 9aleena w ulba9D naa fuhmu (Some people understood us and some did not)).

Furthermore, while most colligate with an indefinite noun, ba9D, ?ay, and ?aktar colligate with both definite and indefinite nouns. (Cf. 9ando maHallant ?aktar (he has more places; and ?aktar unnaas bidaxxu (most people smoke)

Furthermore, while most of the items in question precede their heads ktiir and ?aktar can precede or follow (Cf. 9andi ktiir Suwar (I have many pictures); and ?aroot kutub ktiir (I read many books)).

Finally, it is possible to divide them into three groups according to whether they colligate with singular, plural, or both singular and plural constructions.

Thus ?ay, kul, and šii colligate only with singular constructions, e.g. ?ay ktaab byunfa9 (any/either book will do); kul waaHed ma9o ktaabo (each one has his own book); ?aroeto bi šii majalle (I read it in some magazine).

ba9D, ?aktar, and ktiiir colligate with plural constructions, e.g. ba9D uššarikaat fallasot (some firms were bankrupt); kulliyet ul?aadaab fiiha Tullaab ?aktar min kulliyet uTTubb (The faculty of arts has more students than the faculty of medicine); 9andi ?ujtinaa9aat ktiiro bukra (I have to attend many meetings tomorrow).

kifaayo, šwayyet, and ?ay colligate with singular and plural constructions. Cf.

A. 9andi ?akul kifaayo
(I have enough food)

9aTiini šwayyet wara?
(Give me some paper)

?ay Suura buddak ?
(Which picture do you want ?)

B. Štarcoona kruut kifaayo
(we bought enough cards)

baa9u šwayyet dawaliib.
(They sold some tyres)

?ay sayyaaraat butfaDDol ?
 (Which cars do you prefer ?)

Contrastive implications

In view of the great diversity of behaviour of the Arabic items compared with the behaviour of the English determiner pronouns, it is possible to predict learning difficulties resulting from the conflict between the English and the Arabic items.

Since most Arabic items can occur only as adjuncts (ba9D and ktirr excepted), many native speakers of Arabic find it puzzling to hear or read English items used pronominally in, say, 'I haven't got any', 'I can give you some'.

The positional characteristics of ktirr and ?aktar, which can precede or follow their heads, when transferred to their English corresponding items, cause mistakes like:

- ⊗ I have books many.
- ⊗ He has children more.

Moreover, since the distinction between 'many' and 'much' is not paralleled in Arabic, 'ktirr' corresponding to both, we have a conflict which is reflected by an abundance of attested mistakes like the following:

- ⊗ He has many money.
- ⊗ I have seen much countries.

Finally, since some of the Arabic items (baʿḍ, ʔay, ʔaktar) can colligate with a definite noun, while their English counterparts are mutually exclusive with the definite article, the conflicting behaviour in this area accounts for mistakes of the type:

- ⊗ Most the students chose to study English.
- ⊗ Some the writers are difficult to read.

The third group of determiner-pronouns in English differs from the others in that its members can colligate with the articles and two of the noun-phrase initiators, following them directly, and, in their absence, initiating the noun-phrase. Here belong 'few', 'fewer', 'fewest', 'little', 'less', 'least' and the 'ordinal numbers'.

Of these, 'one', 'little', 'less' and 'least' occur only in singular constructions; 'one' colligating with singular countables, and with the definite article, though mutually exclusive with the indefinite article; 'little', 'less', 'least' colligating with uncountables, which cannot appear with the indefinite article. All three follow the definite article in such constructions as 'the little food there was in the house was stolen'.

'Few', 'fewer', 'fewest' and the numerals above 'one' occur only in plural constructions. Marginal between these

and the last group is 'several' since it colligates with the 'genitive determiners' (see p.167) and the noun-phrase initiators (except 'both'), and rarely with the definite article (the several houses along the road were all closed), but never with the indefinite article.

Ordinal numerals (first, second, third, etc.) behave like members of this sub-class but can appear with a preceding article, e.g.

The first (person) to come was served first.
The first edition was in 1878.

Cf., however,

First come first served.
First edition, 1878.

and in the plural,

There's no time for second shots.

The following examples illustrate the adjunct and head functions and the positional characteristics of the sub-class in relation to the articles and the noun-phrase initiators.

One (dress) they saw was suitable.
Half the few (rooms) available faced due north.

Corresponding to the third group of determiner-pronouns are the following Arabic forms: ?laal (few), ?aliil (little), waaHod/waHde (one) and the numerals. They share with their English counterparts certain characteristics and differ in other respects.

Like their English counterparts, they can colligate with the definite article and can be preceded by 'kull', 'nuSS' which correspond to English 'all' and 'half'. Examples are:

l?aSdiqaa? lu?laal yalli bu?yu xanuu
(The few friends left betrayed him)

ššaa? ul?aliil yalli šrubto sahharni
(The little tea I drank kept me awake)

luktaab ulwaaHod yalli 9andi Daa9
(The only (one) book I have was lost)

kull ulleeraat lu?laal yalli kusubhon nSarafu
(All the few pounds he earned were spent).

'?aliil' and 'waaHod' occur in singular constructions like English 'little' and 'one' but differ positionally, since they follow their head. Cf.

9ando wa?t ?aliil
Ø He has time little.

štara ktaab waaHod
Ø He bought book one

'?laal', which is itself a plural form, colligates with a plural construction like its English counterpart 'few', but

like '?aliil' and 'waaHed' differs positionally. Cf.

?aSdiqaa? ?laal
 0 friends few

As to the other numerals, the syntagmatic relations obtaining between them and the head-word can be summarized as follows:

'waaHed' and 'tneen' follow the noun and agree with it in definiteness or indefiniteness, as well as in gender, e.g.

ltaah waaHed
 (one book)

luktaaboen uttneen
 (the two books)

madrase waHde
 (one school)

From 'tlaate' to '9ašra' (three to ten) the following noun must be plural, e.g.

tlat ?laan
 (three pens)

9ašr tuffaaHaat
 (ten apples)

From '?ida9š' (eleven) and on, the following nominal must be singular, e.g.

9išriin ktaab
 (twenty books)

miit tuffaaHa
(a hundred apples)

?alf leera
(a thousand pounds)

This is in contrast to English where 1. all numerals precede the noun including 'one' and 'two'; 2. where nouns following numerals from 'two' onwards must be plural. The last feature constitutes a conflict and accounts for a great many attested mistakes of the following type:

- ⊖ He bought sixty eggs.
- ⊖ We travelled a hundred mile.

Agreement as to definiteness or indefiniteness between the noun and the numeral in Arabic is subject to the following conditions:

1. Both numeral and noun can be indefinite, e.g. 9ašr kutub (ten books), tlat Suwar (three pictures).
2. When the numeral precedes the noun, the definite article colligates only with the numeral, e.g. ween ul9ašr kutub (Where are the ten books); šuft ul9ašriin Deef (I saw the twenty guests).
3. When the numeral follows the noun, which is not very frequent, both numeral and noun appear with the article, e.g. ween luřlaam ul9ašra (Where are the ten pens ?)

Herein lies a point of conflict, since numerals can only precede the noun in English, and the article, colligating with the whole phrase, appears only before the numeral. Cf.

lu?laam ul9a?ra
 @ the pens the ten.

Ordinal numerals can either precede or follow their heads in Arabic. When preceding, both numerals and their heads are indefinite; when following, both are definite. Ordinal numbers occur from 'waa?ed' (one) to '9a?ra' (ten). From '?ida9š' (eleven) onwards the ordinal numerals, colligating with the article and following their heads, correspond to ordinal numerals in English, e.g.

štareet ?awwal ktaab Tulo9 nawl ulmawuu9
 (I bought the first book to appear on the subject)

haada lmujallad ul?awwal
 (This is the first volume)

lmujallad ul9u?riin lussa maa Tulo9
 (The twentieth volume hasn't appeared yet).

Conflict arising in connection with the ordinals concerns the obligatory use of the definite article where Arabic provides two possibilities. This accounts for the following mistakes:

@ First International Fair in Damascus began in 1945.
 @ fourth year in the university is difficult.

In contexts corresponding to English ordinals from 'eleven' onwards, Arabic structure explains such mistakes as

② The part the twentieth has not appeared

which reflects the Arabic sentence,

ljuz? ul9ušriin lussa maa Tule9.

Noun-Phrase Initiators ✓

'All', 'both', 'half' form a small group of determiners which can precede even the articles. They can be called 'noun-phrase initiators'.

'All' appears with plural or uncountable head-words; it therefore could not precede the indefinite article, but does precede the definite, as in, 'All the nice trim little school girls'.

'Both' has two singular heads or a plural head, e.g.

Both Mary and John
Both the crumbling, gnarled old elm trees.

'Half' can have singular, plural, or uncountable head-words and can precede the definite and indefinite articles, e.g.

Half the people there were in evening dress.
Half an hour is plenty long enough.

Arabic 'kull' and 'nuSS' (all, half) are relevant here. They show with their English counterparts the characteristics of being able to precede the definite articles, and of being used both as adjuncts and as heads.

'kull' colligates only with plural countable and with uncountable head-words. 'nuSS' colligates with singular, plural, or uncountable head-words, e.g.

kull lun9allmin
(all the teachers)

kull uddahab
(all the gold)

nuSS ulwa?t
(half the time)

nuSS ul9ummaal
(half the workers)

nnuSS bikaffi
(half is enough)

'kull' colligates with a determined noun, whereas 'nuSS'⁽¹⁾ colligates with a definite or indefinite noun, e.g.

?areet kull ulmajallo
(I read all the magazine)

štareet nuSS HuSSa
(I bought half a share)

štareet nuSS ulHuSSa
(I bought half the share)

(1) It should be pointed out that while 'kull' is invariable 'nuSS' is variable (nuSSeen : two halves; nuSSa : halves). In other words 'nuSS' is a noun, and 'nuSS HuSSa' in the example given should be regarded as a construct.

When functioning as heads in subject position both 'kull' and 'nuSS' must appear with the definite article; in other positions, however, 'kull' must colligate with the article but 'nuSS' can appear without it, e.g.

lkull ?uju
(All have come)

nnuSS Gaabu
(Half have been absent)

štareet ulkull
(I bought all)

štareet nuSS
(I bought a half)

In view of the differences in the behaviour of English 'all' and Arabic 'kull', it is possible to predict mistakes of the following type:

⊗ I love the all.
⊗ The all were broken.

The numeral 'tneen' when associated with the definite article corresponds to 'both' when it functions as head, e.g.

štareet uttneen
(I bought both)

ttneen mnaah
(Both are good)

Corresponding to the adjunct use of 'both' in structures of the type 'both + noun', Arabic has ' l + noun + een ' where

the definite article precedes a noun in the dual, e.g.

raH tuHtaaj la lkursiyyeen
(You'll need both chairs)

lbadultenn dayy?iin
(Both suits are tight)

Conflict arising in this connection relates to the use of the definite article in Arabic as opposed to its absence with 'both' in English, and to equating 'both' with 'two'. Cf.

You'll need both hands.
You'll need the two hands.

(2)

Adjuncts

B. Adjectives

In the previous section the closed-class of adjuncts occurring in the noun-phrase has been dealt with. In the present section, the second major part of adjuncts, the open class called adjectives will be considered.

In both English and Arabic, it is possible to set up a word-class of adjectives on comparable morphological and syntactical criteria.

In English, the primary defining or identifying ⁽¹⁾ quality of adjectives is their exclusive ability to fit into both the environments left blank in the frame:

the --- man seems very ---

By varying the noun and the noun determiner to avoid lexical incompatibility, and by replacing the verb 'seems' by 'is', 'becomes', 'looks' and certain similar verbs belonging to the closed sub-class of 'stative' verbs (see p. 11), the frame identifies as adjectives all of the underlined words in the following sentences:

(1) In the discussion of English adjectives I have drawn mainly on Francis, op., cit, pp. 168 ff.

The strong man is very strong.
 The uncomfortable position is very uncomfortable.
 The relaxed spectator looks very relaxed.
 The self-centred girl seems very self-centred.
 Any interesting story sounds interesting.

The two positions are 1. between noun determiner and noun, and 2. immediately following an adverbial (like 'very', 'exceedingly', 'fairly'), which in turn follows a copulative or stative verb.

Forms classified as adjectives in the last three examples are homophonous with the verbals called 'past participle' and 'present participle' (see pp. 107 ff.). The latter differ from adjectives in that though they may fit the first position in the frame, they nevertheless do not fit the second. Thus we can say 'the running horse' and 'the murdered man' but not '© the horse is very running' or '© the man is rather murdered'. Moreover, participles occupy a position almost never occupied by adjectives alone, namely, immediately after a noun. Thus we can say both 'a running horse' and 'a horse running'; both 'the murdered man' and 'the man murdered'; but we cannot say '© a girl charming' or 'the man tired⁽¹⁾'.

On the basis of a comparable syntactic frame, it is possible to set up a corresponding word-class of adjectives

(1) H. E. Palmer calls these forms, together with others like (unchanging, uncomplaining, undeserving), which have no such verbs as (© to unchange, © to uncomplain, © to undeserve) 'Participial adjectives'. Op. cit. pp. 72 ff.

in Arabic. Thus all words that fill the blank in the following two frames are adjectives:

1. lwalad --- Saar --- ktiir
2. lwalad --- ktiir

In 1. the first position is following a noun and the second position is between a verb that belongs to the same list of verbs that correspond to English stative verbs (see p. 11) and an adverbial (see pp. 113 ff). In 2. the position is between a noun and the adverbial 'ktiir'. Examples are:

1. lwalad ulmujtuhed Saar Gani ktiir
(the industrious boy became very rich)
- lbadle jjdiide Tul9et davy?a ktiir
(the new suit turned out very tight)
- SSuura lumlawwane bayyanet wanDHa ktiir
(the coloured picture appeared very clear)
- lbunt ulwan?fe Saaret ta9banne ktiir
(the standing girl became very tired)
2. Tta?s baared ktiir
(the weather is very cold)
- lbuuZa Tayybe ktiir
(the ice-cream is very delicious)
- lumhandes mjarrah ktiir
(the architect is very experienced)
- lmanZar saaHer ktiir
(the view is very charming)

It will be noticed that in partial correspondence

to English, the last two examples of both 1. and 2. include forms like. (mlawwane, waa?fe; mjarrab, saaher) which are termed 'Active Participles' and 'Passive Participles' respectively, and whose function correspond to English present and past participles in many respects (see pp.312 ff).

So far, adjectives have been set up, in both English and Arabic, on syntactical criteria. It is also possible to adduce comparable morphological criteria which mark adjectives in the two languages. To do so, it is necessary to recognize, in both languages, two large sub-classes which may be called 'base adjectives' and 'derived adjectives'.

In English, 'base adjectives' while fitting both positions in the syntactic frame also exhibit the following morphological characteristics:

1. They are associated with the suffixes -er and -est to form the so-called comparative and superlative degrees, e.g.

warm	warmer	warmest
cold	colder	coldest
fast	faster	fastest

2. Base adjectives are also characterized by the fact that they serve as stems from which nouns and adverbs are formed by the derivational suffixes -ness and -ly, e.g.

<u>Adjective</u>	<u>Noun</u>	<u>Adverb</u>
strange	strangeness	strangely
black	blackness	blackly (1)
false	falsehood	falsely

3. Most base adjectives are monosyllabic, and none have two syllables except a few that begin with a derivational suffix like - un, e.g. uncommon, inhuman.

4. A fair number of base adjectives form verbs by adding the derivational suffix -en, the prefix -en, or both, e.g. brighten, cheapen, enlarge, embitter, enlighten, enliven.

'Derived Adjectives', as their name indicates, are those formed by the addition of adjective-forming suffixes to free or bound forms.

Some of the common suffixes which form derived adjectives are the following:

(a) '-y', added to one- and two-syllable nouns and bound stems, as in faulty, leafy, healthy, holy.

(b) '-al', added to nouns and bound stems: fatal, natural, local, physical.

(c) '-able', added to verbs and bound stems: remarkable, adaptable, viable, visible.

(1) The above statement should provide for cases of suppletion (cf. good goodness well) as well as for cases where some
 .../...

(d) '-ful' and '-less', added to nouns: hopeful, hopeless; useful, useless.

(e) '-ar', '-ary', '-ic', '-ish', and '-ous', added to nouns and bound stems: popular, regular; legendar, literary; climatic, comic; childish, lavish; marvdulous, pernicious.

(f) '-ent' and '-ive', added to verbs and bound stems: abhorrent, convenient; active, native.

(g) '-en', added to nouns: woolen, wooden, paken.

(h) '-ed', added to verbs and nouns: tired, devoted; flowered, booted.

(i) '-ing', added to verbs: interesting, revealing, pleasing.

(j) 'ly'⁽¹⁾, added to nouns and some bound stems: friendly, orderly, homely.

Derived adjectives are distinguished from base adjectives not only in being marked by derivational suffixes,

cont.

base adjectives use other derivational suffixes beside -ness to form nouns (cf. deep deepness (depth) deeply).

(1) This "distinguished from the homophonous adverb-forming suffix by the fact that its stems are nouns and bound stems, whereas the stems from which adverbs are formed are adjectives.

but also by the fact that they are virtually never suffixed with -er and -est except for some two-syllable forms like 'friendly'. Corresponding to -er and -est forms of base adjectives, derived adjectives appear with the forms 'more' and 'most' in comparable constructions. Cf.

Jack is older than John
Jack is more devoted than John

Jack is the kindest of all
Jack is the most popular of all.

In Arabic also, adjectives exhibit certain morphological characteristics which are comparable with those of English adjectives. Thus parallel to the two sub-classes of base and derived adjectives in English, it is possible to set up two major sub-classes of base adjectives and derived adjectives in Arabic.

Base adjectives belong to a number of phonological patterns, the most productive of which are:

(a) caacec : šaaTer (skilful), Haazem (firm), saaHer (charming), šaaker (thankful), faaleH (resourceful).

(b) caccaac : TaFraan (penniless), sakraan (drunk), GalTaan (mistaken), za9laan (sad).

- (c) cacīic : baṭīiṭ (slow), kariim (generous),
ḡaniid (stubborn), badiiḡ (magnificent),
laṭīiṭ (gentle).
- (d) cciic : jdiid (new), kbīir (big), mīiḥ (good),
rxīiṣ (cheap), rʔīiṭ (thin)
- (e) ʔaccac : ʔaḥḥar (red), ʔazraʔ (blue), ʔaxḍar (green),
ʔaṣfar (yellow), ʔabyaḍ (white).
- (f) cayyec : Tayyeb (delicious), xayyer (generous),
ḥayyeb (solemn), jayyed (good), sayyoʔ (bad).
- (g) cucec : wuṣex (dirty), buṣeḡ (ugly), nuked (nagging),
ṣuṃej (rude), ruṭeb (wet).
- (h) caacc⁽¹⁾ : Haarr (hot), saarr (pleasing), baarr (paternally
kind), Daarr (damaging), taamm (complete),
saamm (poisonous).
- (i) caaci : Saahi (attentive), saahi (absent-minded),
faadi (empty), waḡi (conscious).
- (j) caci : saxi (generous), wafi (faithful), radi
(bad), dani (low), nadi (wet).

(1) 'cc' indicates a geminated consonant.

Base adjectives are distinguished as a whole by the possibility of appearing in the pattern ' ?accac' in contexts of comparison. Examples are:

waa?ol ?aštar mun mayba
(Waal is more skilful than Maisa)

?ana ?ašfar munnak
(I am more broke than you are)

lkitaabu bu l?iid ?abTa? mun ulkitaabe 9ala l?aalo
(Hand writing is slower than typing)

london ?akbar mun baariiz
(London is larger than Paris)

Derived adjectives are formed from nouns by addition of the adjective-forming suffix ⁽¹⁾-i and are used by educated speakers only. Examples are:

faHS 9amali
(practical examination)

Tabiib ?uxtišaaSi
(specialised doctor)

waDu9 Haali
(actual situation)

ħuquu? nafi
(inner peace)

maħDuu9 9ašfi
(romantic subject)

(1) nouns ending in a vowel 'drop this vowel before -i is added, e.g. ma?ii?a (truth) : ma?ii?i (true); waZiifo (function) : waZiifi (functional).

Corresponding to English derived adjectives in the manner of their comparative and superlative behaviour, Arabic derived adjectives cannot appear in the patten '?accac', but can appear with the form '?aktar' following them in contexts comparable to those in which base adjectives appear in the '?accac' form. Cf.

waa?el ?azka mun samiir (Wael is more intelligent than
Samir)
waa?el 9aaTifi ?aktar mun Samir (Wael is more romantic
than Samir)

So far, adjectives in the two languages have been established on more or less comparable criteria. However, the distribution of what are deemed to be adjectives in the two languages differs in other respects, the most important of which, from a contrastive point of view, will be discussed below.

Subdivision within the general class of adjectives is made on two independent lines - first, the morphological (whether the adjective is variable or not, and second, the positional (where, in a sequence of adjectives, a particular adjective belongs).

It should be stated at once that variability and position mean different things according to whether they are applied to English or Arabic. Thus in English variability

refers to the colligability of the adjectives with the comparative and superlative suffixes *-er* and *-est*, and position relates to the relative position of the adjective in relation to other adjectives, as well as to its position relative to its head in nominal phrases, and relative to the subject in sentences of Type II (see p. 21) and Type VI, sub-type B (see p. 16).

In Arabic on the other hand, the variability of the adjective has two aspects: that of concord in gender and number with the head-word in noun-phrases, and with the subject in nominal sentences; and that of comparison (appearance in 'ʔaccac' form). Thus the adjective 'kbiir' has the following scatter:

<u>masculine</u>	<u>feminine</u>	<u>plural</u>	<u>comparison</u>
kbiir	kbiire	kbaar	ʔakbar

Examples are:

beet kbiir
(a big house)
jneene kbiire
(a big garden)

waaʔel kbiir
(Wael is big)
maysa kbiire
(Maisa is big)

waaʔel w maysa kbaar
(Wael and Maisa are big)

waaʔel ʔakbar mun maysa
 (Wael is older than Maisa)
 maysa ʔakbar mun layla
 (Maisa is older than Laila)
 waaʔel w maysa ʔakbar mun layla
 (Wael and Maisa are older than Laila)

The above examples show that gender operates only in the singular, and that when appearing in 'ʔaccac' form the adjective does not show any signs of number or gender concord.

Position concerns not only the relative position of the adjective in a sequence of adjectives, but also its position relative to its head in noun-phrases, and to the subject when functioning as predicate in nominal sentences (see pp. 6 ff.)

Thus the adjective follows its head in noun-phrases consisting of a noun and an adjective, and, when functioning as predicate, can follow or precede the subject, (See p. 9)
 cf.

ktaab jdiid
 (a new book)

luktaab jdiid
 (the book is new)

jdiid luktaab
 (the book is new)

The relative position in a sequence of adjectives is extremely flexible in contrast to the position of adjectives in sequence in English. Where English requires us to say 'a large black and white hunting dog' Arabic allows both
 (1)
 'kalb Seed kbiir ?aswad w ?abyaD' and 'kalb Seed ?aswad w ?abyaD kbiir'.

Contrastive implications

In the light of the above facts of English and Arabic adjectives, it is possible to predict a number of problems facing the native speaker of Arabic in connection with adjectives in English. The problems result from the partially different behaviour of forms classified as adjectives in the two languages.

Variability

Under this term two points of conflict arise: the first relates to the concordial variability of Arabic adjectives in terms of number and gender versus absence of concord in the case of English adjectives. The second refers to the fact that while English has a three-term comparison labelled positive (uninflected), comparative (-er form), and superlative (-est form), Arabic has a two-term system, an uninflected form and

(1) 'Seed' is not considered an adjective but a noun forming a construct with the preceding noun, just as 'hunting' in 'hunting dog' is to be considered a noun forming a compound with the following noun.

a comparative one, 'ʔaccac', the comparative form being used where English uses both the comparative and the superlative forms. Cf.

My son is cleverer than yours
ʔubni ʔazka mun ʔubnak

My son is the cleverest boy in the class
ʔubni ʔazka walad bu ʔʔaff

Attested mistakes reflecting transfer of concordial habits of Arabic adjectives to English include:

- ③ My friends are strongs.
- ③ The reds flowers have been cut.

Mistakes reflecting conflict in contexts of comparison are:

- ③ The aeroplane is faster means of travel.
- ③ I judged that he is better of all therefore.

Position

Conflict arising from positional differences in the distribution of adjectives in the two languages involves two points: the first relates to the different distributional characteristics of the class of adjectives in relation to other classes in different structures; the second concerns the relative position of the adjective in a sequence of adjectives.

In connection with the first point, it has been shown that the adjective in Arabic follows its noun-head in noun phrases and can, as predicate, follow or precede the subject in nominal sentences. Transfer of these characteristics to English will produce the following attested mistakes:

- ⊙ My father bought me a suit new
- ⊙ Hot the tea

which translate the Arabic sentences

ʔabi štaraali badle jdiide
suxun uššaay

Regarding the second point, the positional characteristics of adjectives in English constitute a major problem for speakers of Syrian Arabic, in whose language the sequential order of adjectives in relation to one another is not subject to the kind of restrictions operative in English.

Such restrictions apply to the use of adjectives as adjuncts. It is necessary to recognise both the case of fixed order (cf. a dear old lady, a red woollen jumper, etc) as opposed to transposability (cf. 'a long cold winter', freely variant with 'a cold long winter'), and sub-types of fixed order based on the contrastive behaviour of adjectives in terms of relative proximity to the noun-head. Once the sequence-classes have been recognised, it is possible to

set up a system of phrasal sub-types within which to state the facts of co-occurrence.

Part of the difficulty of the positional classification of adjectives in English relates to the fact that what sometimes appears to be a sequence of two separate adjectives illustrate in fact adjectival compounding, in which sequence is determined. Consider, for example, what may be called the 'meliorative-pejorative'⁽¹⁾ class of such compounds, examples of which include: '(a) dear old lady', '(a) sweet little baby', '(a) pretty little house', '(a) fine big boy', '(a) nice young man', '(a) nasty old man', '(a) silly old fool', '(a) dirty little blighter', etc. The 'compound' status of these adjectives relates partly to the limited collocational possibilities shown by such compounds, as well as to the 'removal' of the second adjective from immediate juxtaposition with the noun in, say, 'a pretty little Georgian house'. Other criteria include the inadmissibility of comparative and superlative marks for the final adjectival form of the group, cf. 'a sweeter (more charming) old (not @ older) lady I've never met'. Moreover, the uninterpolability before the second adjective of such adverbs as 'very', 'extremely' is also relevant to the identity of the phrasal type of 'dear old'; contrast,

(1) In the discussion of the facts of sequence of adjectives I have drawn freely on Mitchell's 'Some English Phrasal Types', op. cit.

for example, 'it's a very pretty (@ very) little house' with, say, 'he's got a very ugly, very bad-tempered face', the adjectival elements of which are freely invertible. Finally, most such adjectival sequences do not occur predicatively, even with a co-ordinator (and, but, or, etc.)

Examples like 'an old Roman coin', 'a hot African sun' contrast with the type of 'a dear old lady' in that they contain an adjective of origin, which must generally occupy the position immediately preceding the noun. It is noteworthy, however, that the contrastive order of 'an African-hot sun' relates to a phrasal type which is to be compared with the periphrastic type of 'as hot as (in) Africa' appropriate to other contexts.

The following examples illustrate the need to recognise also a class of colour adjectives: '(a) little black hat', 'coarse brown sacking', 'heavy red curtains'. These 'give way' to adjectives of origin, cf. 'the green English countryside'.

Consideration of the extensibility of such complexes as 'silk scarf', 'stone wall', 'glass beads' leads to further refinement in the statement of the facts of sequence. The complex is usually regarded as an adjective-noun sequence incorporating a special class of forms (silk, stone, glass, etc.)

(1)

relating to materials. Such a view relies principally on the patterns of stress with which such complexes are associated. It should be noted, however, that the material class does not behave wholly in the manner of other adjectives. In the matter of proximity to the noun, material forms take precedence over all others, cf. 'a large black indian silk scarf'.

The examples considered so far exhibit sequential determination and the need to recognise 'places' within sequences as a means of accounting for the mutual positional relationship of adjectival elements. They contrast with examples such as 'an ugly bad-tempered face' and 'a long cold winter' which illustrate the case of freely transposable adjectival forms, which are often associated with co-ordinators, cf. 'a dry but cold summer', and are distinguished, not least in the matter of juncture, from such compound forms as 'hot-and-cold (water)'. Within the type of sequential determination, it is necessary to distinguish a number of sub-types; thus we may differentiate

1. (a) dear old lady (meliorative-pejorative type)
2. (an) old Roman coin ('neutral' old + adj. of origin)
3. (a) little black hat ('neutral' little + adj. of colour)
4. green English fields (adj. of colour + adj. of origin)
5. (an) Indian silk scarf (adj. of origin + material form)
6. (a) long jagged scarf (which illustrates a strongly marked tendency to place shorter (usually monosyllabic) forms first in adjectival sequences)

(1) See Mill, op. cit. pp.173 ff. and cf. his example 'all the ten fine old stone houses'.

If we take the example 'a large black Indian silk scarf' and compare it with the following possibilities in Arabic

ʔešaarb kbir ʔaswad hindi hariir
 ʔešaarb ʔaswad kbir hindi hariir
 ʔešaarb ʔaswad kbir hariir hindi
 ʔešarw hindi hariir kbir ʔaswad
 ʔešarw hariir hindi kbir ʔaswad

we realize the enormous difficulties facing speakers of Arabic in connection with the classes exhibiting sequential determination in English. It should perhaps be mentioned that, as in colloquial English, a sequence of more than two adjectival forms in Arabic is comparatively rare, the connector 'w' (and) normally separating such sequences.

Chapter Two
Verbal Phrases

(1)

Simple sentences in English have been found to consist essentially of a noun phrase and a verb phrase. In chapter one, noun phrases in English were discussed and contrasted with noun phrases in Arabic. In the following, verb phrases in English will be examined and contrasted with what may be considered their Arabic counterparts.

A. Verb phrases in English

The verbal form is variable in terms of person, number, tense, and voice, exponents of which are cumulate. The formal scatter of a typical maximally differentiated verb gives five possible forms (the verb 'to be' is still further differentiated: be, am, are, is, was, were, being, been). These are traditionally named as follows:

Simple or unmodified form : drive, sing, go, speak;

Third person singular form: drives, sings, goes, speaks;

Present participle form : driving, singing, going, speaking;

Past tense form : drove, sang, went, spoke;

Past participle form : driven, sung, gone, spoken.

For easier reference the forms will be referred to as: zero, -s, -ing, -ed, -en forms respectively.

Verb phrases in English are describable only with reference to what are traditionally known as auxiliaries, a closed set of verbs which are combined with 'lexical verbs' (otherwise 'full verbs', 'free verbs', 'true verbs', i.e. one of the thousands in the lexicon, whose distribution is stable in less general terms than that of the auxiliaries) in a system of periphrastic forms, in the classification of which terminology of aspect and voice is conveniently used (see table on following page).

'Primary' and 'Modal' Auxiliaries

It is possible to distinguish two sub-classes of auxiliaries: the 'primary', with full scatter (zero, -s, -ing, -ed, and -en forms), and the 'modal' which have no -s, -en, or -ing forms, and most of which have no -ed forms. The primary auxiliaries are: have (has, had), be (am, are, is, was, were), and do (does, did). The modal auxiliaries include: can, could, may, might, must, need, ought to, used to, dare, shall, should, will, and would.

Have and be enter into verbal constructions of aspect and voice (have + -en: perfective; be + -ing: continuative; be + -en: passive). The infinitive form (to + zero form) occurs in simple (to ask), perfective (to have asked), continuative (to be asking), and passive forms (to be asked). Moreover, perfective,

ASPECT AND VOICE		NON-CONTINUATIVE								CONTINUATIVE							
		NON-PERFECTIVE				PERFECTIVE				NON-PERFECTIVE				PERFECTIVE			
		ACTIVE		PASSIVE		ACTIVE		PASSIVE		ACTIVE		PASSIVE		ACTIVE		PASSIVE	
INFINITIVAL AND OTHER NON-FINITE ELEMENTS	INFINITIVAL AUXILIARY OTHER NON-FINITES	zero		be		have				be				(have)			
		(ASK)		(ASK)ed		(ASK)ed		been (ASK)ed		(ASK)ing		being (ASK)ed		been (ASK)ing		been being (ASK)ed	
TENSE		PR	PA	PR	PA	PR	PA	PR	PA	PR	PA	PR	PA	PR	PA	PR	PA
FINITE FORMS																	
(a)																	
(i) lexical verb flections		zero/-s	-ed, etc.	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
(ii) 'general' auxiliary		do/does	did	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
(b) aspectival and voice auxiliaries		x	x	am/is/are	was/were	have/has	had	have/has	had	am/is/are	was/were	am/is/are	was/were	have/has	had	have/has	had
MODAL AUXILIARIES		shall/should/will/would/can/could/may/might/must/ought to (/need/dare/used to) (+ infinitival periphrasis)															

PR present
PA past

continuative, and passive can co-occur, as in (to have been being asked). When they do, they follow a fixed order: the perfective mark (have + -en) comes first; then comes the continuative (be + -ing) followed by the passive (be + -en). In other words the -en component of the perfective attaches to the first element after have so that have -en constitute a discontinuous morpheme; the -ing component of a continuative discontinuous complex similarly attaches to the element following be; and finally the passive is characterized by be and a component -en suffixed to the following element. Thus we can have

	<u>V-3</u>	<u>V-2</u>	<u>V-1</u>	<u>V</u>
to	<u>have</u>	<u>been</u>	<u>being</u>	(ASK)ed
	X	<u>be</u>	<u>being</u>	(ASK)ed
	<u>have</u>	<u>been</u>	X	(ASK) <u>ing</u>
	X	<u>be</u>	X	(ASK) <u>ing</u>
	<u>have</u>	X	<u>been</u>	(ASK)ed
	<u>have</u>	X	X	(ASK)ed
	X	X	be	(ASK)ed
	X	X	X	(ASK)

where V,, _____, unmarked, and caps represent lexical verb, perfective, continuative, passive, and instances of lexical verb respectively.

A verb includes finite and non-finite forms in its total scatter. A finite form colligates with a noun or pronoun subject and is linked to the verb by potential or actual agreement expressible in terms of a combined category of tense-person-number. Thus the form 'has', say, in 'John has gone' or 'has John gone?' is a finite form; so, too, is 'have' in, e.g. 'they have gone', but the 'have' in, say, 'they must have gone' is the different infinitival form of the auxiliary. A lexical verb as 'ASK' comprises:

(a) finite forms : ask, asks, asked

(b) non-finite forms : ask (infinitive), asking (continuative), asked (perfective), asked (passive).

The 'primary' auxiliaries of the verb phrase comprise:

(a) finite forms : have, has, had, am, are, is, was, were, do, does, did.

(b) non-finite forms : have, be (continuative), be (passive) being, been.

In addition to categories of aspect and voice, two tenses must be recognized, so that 16 formal types are distinguishable as follows:

	<u>Present Tense</u>	<u>Past Tense</u>
<u>Simple</u>	I ask	I asked
<u>Perfective</u>	I have asked	I had asked
<u>Continuative</u>	I am asking	I was asking
<u>Passive</u>	I am asked	I was asked
<u>Perf.&Cont.</u>	I have been asking	I had been asking
<u>Perf.&Pas.</u>	I have been asked	I had been asked
<u>Cont.&Pas.</u>	I am being asked	I was being asked
<u>Perf.&Cont. & Pas.</u>	I have been being asked	I had been being asked

In all or any of the 16 formal types above, it is always the first verbal form of the phrase, whether lexical or auxiliary, that carries the marks of tense and person.

Having outlined all the possible forms of verbs in English (modal auxiliaries excepted), it is necessary to discuss the distribution of these forms. But first a sketch of verb forms in Arabic is appropriate at this stage.

B. Verb phrases in Arabic

Corresponding to English verbs, it is possible to set up a word-class in Arabic which is characterized by variability in terms of person, number, tense, voice, and aspect.

An examination of a typical scatter of related verbal forms leads to the recognition of three systems of affixes.

		(1)		(2)		(3)	
		<u>Scatter</u>	<u>Affixes</u> <u>Pr. Suf.</u>	<u>Scatter</u>	<u>Affixes</u> <u>Pr. Suf.</u>	<u>Scatter</u>	<u>Affixes</u> <u>Pr. Suf.</u>
3rd per- son	{ Sing. (Masc. katab (Fem. katbet P l u r a l katabu	-	∅	yuktob	y -		
		-	et	tuktob	t -		
		-	u	yuktbu	y u		
2nd per- son	{ Sing. (Masc. katabt (Fem. katabti P l u r a l katabtu	-	t	tuktob	t -	ktoob	- ∅
		-	ti	tuktbi	t i	ktubi	- i
		-	tu	tuktbu	t u	ktubu	- u
1st pers.	{ S i n g u l a r katabt P l u r a l katabna	-	t	?uktob	? -		
		-	na	nuktob	n -		

(Pr., Suf. = prefix, suffix; ∅ = zero suffix)

The above tabulated affixes are common to all verbs, though these may be of different radical patterns; cf. katab (he wrote);

- (1) It is characteristic of all forms of Arabic that the great majority of words are built on a framework of three consonants. By ringing the changes with affixes, and vowel differences on a given base it is possible to obtain a great variety of related forms. Thus the base k-t-b gives us the series tabulated above as well as: kaateb (clerk, writer), maktuub (letter), maktabe (library), maktab (office), etc. The base k-t-b in the examples is called the root, and each consonant of the root a radical. See T. F. Mitchell, 'Colloquial Arabic', The English Universities Press Ltd., London, 1962, p.36.

(1)
 which has the favourite three-radical pattern, rama (he threw),
 and mišī (he walked), which have g and l in place of a ^{third} ~~second~~
 radical consonant, and Habb (he loved), which has the same con-
 sonant as second and third radicals and no vowels between them.

On the basis of their colligability with (1), (2), and (3)
 of the above systems of affixes, verbal forms may be divided
 into three groups: perfect, imperfect, and imperative respec-
 tively.⁽²⁾

It is noticeable that the imperfect is distinguished by
 discontinuous affixation with prefixes and suffixes. On the
 other hand, the perfect and imperative contain suffixes only.
 Moreover, the imperative differs from both perfect and imperfect
 not only in respect of affixal shape but also in the number
 of forms that constitute its formal scatter. The imperative
 relates to one person only, whereas it is necessary to recognize
 three persons for both the perfect and the imperfect. Gender
 is operative in the second person singular of all three groups

(1) A morphological account of Arabic verbal forms, which is not
 our concern in this primarily syntactic description, should
 envisage a detailed description of the different vowelings
 obtaining in the different scatters of the verbal forms.
 See also Mitchell, op. cit., pp. 28 ff.

(2) Affixes relating to voice have been left out for the moment
 for easier presentation. They will be taken up below, p. 111

and additionally in the third person singular of the first two groups; first person forms exhibit no distinction of gender; two categories of number, singular and plural, are distinguished for all persons.

Imperfect verbs colligate with two other prefixes, b and 9am, both of which precede the prefixes of person, gender, and number, and thus contribute to another system which consists of b, 9am, and zero, the contrastive distribution of which is given below.

Distribution of Comparable Finite Forms

In the discussion of the distribution of verb forms in English and Arabic, it is assumed that certain verb forms in English are equated by speakers of Arabic with certain verb forms in Arabic. Herein lie many learning problems, since the distribution of the equated forms is at best only roughly comparable, which is what one would expect to hold true among languages. Thus speakers of Arabic tend to equate the simple present form of English verbs with the imperfect forms of Arabic when associated with the prefix b, the simple past of English verbs with the perfect forms in Arabic, etc., since there is a wide range of comparability between the equated forms. The comparable, yet contrastive distribution of English and Arabic forms is bound to constitute a conflict between the two languages and to create teaching problems, which are reflected in an abundance of attested mistakes explainable by the generalized transfer of the distributional characteristics of Arabic forms to their assumed English counterparts.

In the following, English verbal forms will be considered together with what are deemed to be comparable forms in Arabic, with a view to revealing similar features of distribution as well as contrastive ones. This will be followed by a con-

sideration of the contrastive implications and the teaching problems involved in each verbal form discussed. Attested mistakes reflecting the contrastive features of distribution between English and Arabic forms will be quoted and related to the particular contrastive feature concerned. The procedure will be take English forms one by one and compare them with the nearest comparable form in Arabic.

It is convenient to take first the simple forms (present and past) and aspectival and voice constructions subsequently.

1. Simple forms

a) Present

The distribution of the simple present form is best considered in relation to two forms: the simple past, and the present continuous forms. Of the three forms the simple present is the least marked, since, to quote from Twaddell's 'The English Verb Auxiliaries'⁽¹⁾, "It is compatible with any chronological meaning overtly signalled elsewhere in the sentence or situation: future if so signalled by adverbial elements, context or situation; indefinitely repeated in stage directions and ritual instructions; immutable and eternal in summaries of a story plot, including headlines."

(1) W.F. Twaddell, 'The English Verb Auxiliaries', Brown University Press, 1960 (Providence. Rhode Island)

Within the framework of simple sentences, the simple present is not usually associated with adverbial forms of contemporary duration (e.g. now, at the present moment), and in this respect it contrasts with the present continuous. Thus we cannot have ' @ Don't disturb me. I try to solve a difficult problem now.' This is not the case, however, in complex sentences, where the simple present can associate with adverbials of contemporary duration. Cf. 'If I try now, I shan't succeed.'

The above statement as to the distribution of the simple present is in some measure a negative one. A further negative statement relates to the unassociability of simple present forms with adverbials of past time (e.g. yesterday, last year, etc.) in simple sentences. Thus we cannot have ' @ I go there yesterday' ' @ He dies yesterday'. This statement does not hold true, however in a narrative context, where the simple present does in fact associate with adverbials of past time. Cf. 'Would you believe it ? He goes yesterday, two days later than he should have gone.'

A more positive statement of the distribution of the simple present relates to its associability with adverbials of repetition or permanence (e.g. every day, weekly, often, always). This distributional characteristic constitutes the formal basis for statements by grammarians that the simple present implies that

(1) Sweet, op. cit., p.104.

a statement is of general application, and holds good for all time (the sun rises in the east), or that an action or phenomenon is habitual (he gets up at six every morning), or recurrent (he goes to Germany twice a year).

It should be pointed out, however, that the associability of adverbials of permanence is not the sole property of the simple present, since these can associate with the simple past as well, usually in complex sentences. Cf. 'I always smoked cigars when I could afford to buy them.' Moreover, the present continuous can also associate with adverbials of the above type. Cf. 'He's getting up at 6 every morning nowadays'.

Examples of the simple present forms are:

I smoke twenty cigarettes every day.
 I always go to sleep early and get up early.
 They pay him weekly.
 He travels very often in the summer.

The above distributional facts cannot be looked upon as a kind of master criterion for the establishment of the simple present forms. Further characteristics of the simple present can be seen within more narrowly defined contexts.

Thus the simple present of certain verbs, mostly those which may be called motive verbs (go, come, travel, arrive, fly, etc.) can associate with adverbials of future time (e.g. next week, to-morrow, the following year, etc.), e.g.

He flies to Paris to-morrow.
 The Prime Minister returns to London to-night.
 The airplane takes off in an hour.

Cf. also,

He reads his paper next week.
 The committees meet to-morrow to study the project.
 Elections begin next month.

The simple form of all verbs can also associate with adverbials of future time in complex sentences, mostly in adverbial clauses. Examples are:

When you wake up to-morrow, all will be over.
 If they arrive before I leave, I'll talk to them.
 I won't talk to him until he apologizes.

Further characteristics of the simple present can be seen in those cases where it is freely variant with the present perfect forms. Some of the verbs to which this characteristic applies are those connected with the senses (see, hear, etc.). Examples are:

I hear (I've heard) prices have gone up lately.
 My friend who writes stories tells me (has told me)....
 I find (I've found) the film you told me about very amusing.

The simple present form occurs also in free variation with the simple past in narrative contexts, the so-called 'historic present', e.g.

They refused all offers. But mark the end. The mother dies, the father is married again, and has a son, etc.

When behold, ... one of the English men sees three strange men coming. Away runs the English man ...

Walking in the forest, he sees a tiger, he takes aim, and fires.

In situations of demonstration, the simple present can vary freely with the present continuative form. Thus in a demonstration of an eye operation on television: I remove (am removing) the cornea.

Moreover, verbs connected with states of mind or disposition (e.g. love, hate, believe, fear) may appear in the simple present form where other verbs appear in the continuative form, i.e. when associated with adverbials of contemporary duration. Examples are:

For the moment I believe him. He'd better turn out to be right
He loves us now, but to-morrow he may hate us.
First she likes this and then she likes that; right now she likes nobody.

1. a¹) Distribution of Arabic b+imperfect

Imperfect b - verbs correspond in general to English verbs in the simple present form. Thus in simple sentences they are regularly associated with adverbials of recurrent or habitual states or events like: 9aadatan (habitually), daa?iman (always), SSubuH (in the morning), bu lleel (at night), ?aHyaanan (sometimes), kul yoom (every day), etc. Examples are:

9aadatan bidallilu SSabi ?aktar mun ulbunt
(They usually spoil the boy more than the girl)

?ana daa?iman bnaam bakkiir
(I always sleep early)

nnaas byaaklu ?akle xafiife SSubuH
(People eat a light meal in the morning)

bu SSeef ljaww byubrod bu lleel
(In the summer it gets cold during the night)

waa?el byuktob waZiifto kul yoom
(Wael writes his homework every day)

They also occur with adverbials associated with future time, both in simple and complex sentences. The adverbials include: bukra (to-morrow), ba9deen (later), ba9d saa9a (in an hour), ssune ljaaye (next year), etc. Examples of simple sentences are:

bukra bub9at ulmaktuub.
(To-morrow I'll send the letter)

?axi byutxarra?j ussune ljaaye
(My brother will graduate next year)

ba9d saa9a byu9lunu nnataa?ej
(They will announce the results in an hour)

Moreover, parallel to the use of the simple present form in English, imperfect b-verbs can be used in the so-called 'historic present', and in situations of "demonstration".
Examples are:

kaan 9alaayuddiin yul9ab bu lHaara ma9 rufa?aato. yoom
 bisuufu waaHed saaHer. byus?alo 9an ?usmo
 (Aladin used to play in the street with his friends. One
 day a magician sees him. He asks him about his name...)

... byusma9 ul?amiir 9an. sutt ulHusun w biSammem ?unno
 yuxTubha.
 (The prince hears of Sit Alhusn and decides to ask for
 her hand.)

In a demonstration of a geometry theorem:

(1)
 munnazzel 9amuud mun uzzaawye bee 9a DDulu9 j1im daal
 (we draw a perpendicular from angle (b) to the base (a-c))

In the first two examples, imperfect b-verbs are freely
 variant with perfect forms. But in the demonstration context,
 variation is with what may be called 'periphrastic forms (e.g.
 raH unnazzel : we shall draw) and not with perfect forms. Both
 types, however, are characterized inter alia by the lack of
 potential association with adverbials of the earlier type.

1.a²) Contrastive Implications

It is clear from the different examples given above that
 imperfect b-verbs in Arabic^{are} generally comparable with English
 verbs in the simple present form. Comparability, however, does
 not extend to all cases, and this is bound to bring about
 learning problems.

(1) Morphophonemic alternants of b include /m/ when the verb
 contains the first person plural prefix /n/.

Thus while both simple present forms in English and b-imperfect forms in Arabic are compatible with adverbials of future time, the membership of the verb-class so associable in the two languages is different. In the case of English, only a small number of verbs are associated with adverbials of future time in simple sentences. These include: come, go, leave, arrive, return, set off, take off, embark, sail, etc. In the case of Arabic, however, all verbs can appear with adverbials of future time both in simple and complex sentences. Moreover, while English verbs in the simple present form can associate with future adverbials only in certain styles, e.g. in newspaper or radio reports, association of such adverbials with imperfect b-verbs in Arabic is not restricted to any particular style. Thus we cannot have in English:

- @ The police are much stricter with bad drivers in future.
- @ Don't worry about your money. I pay you next week.

Cf., however, 'he takes his exam to-morrow', in a reportage; or 'From now on he sleeps on his own,' 'In future he studies only 2 hours a night' (father's edict).

The restriction imposed on the membership and on the contextual distribution of verbs in the simple present form when associated with future adverbials, as opposed to absence of a comparable restriction on imperfect b-verbs, constitutes a conflict between the two languages. The ignoring of such

restrictions by speakers of Arabic results in the following mistakes:

- ③ I explain everything later. (1)
 ③ There's no time; we discuss the details next week.

Imperfect b-verbs in complex sentences

The behaviour of imperfect b-verbs in complex sentences differs from that of simple present forms in comparable contexts in English. The behaviour of Arabic and English forms may be contrasted under two headings: 1. Conditional Sentences; 2. Sequence of Tenses.

Conditional Sentences

In conditional sentences imperfect b-verbs appear in the main clause whether the verb in the conditional clause is in the perfect or b-imperfect form, e.g.

1. ?iza Dawwa9t ha l?alan maa bu?triilak Geero
 (If you lost this pencil, I wouldn't buy you another one)
2. ?iza buDDawwe9 ha l?alan maa bu?triilak Geero
 (If you lose this pencil, I won't buy you another one)

(1) It should be pointed out that this is a mistake as far as the context goes. But 'We discuss the details (of our mortgage) next week' is a perfectly good sentence elsewhere. Perhaps the reason is the contrast between "now" and "next week", but more research is necessary before a definite answer can be given.

It will be noticed that the same imperfect b-form appears in the two sentences, where English requires a modal before the primary verb in the main clause. Now since in the majority of cases the simple present form and the simple past form in English correspond to b + imperfect and to perfect forms respectively in Arabic, a mechanically generalized equation of the English with the Arabic forms, which is to be expected in the learning situation, explains the following mistakes:

- @ If you telephoned in the evening you do not find me
- @ You will be smacked if you dirtied your clothes
- @ If they gave the choice, I choose the red ones.
- @ If you went early, you can book good seats.

which reflect Arabic,

?iza talfant ulmasa maa butlaa?iini
 btaakol ?atle ?iza wassaxt ?awa9iik
 ?iza 9aTuuni lxayaar buxtaar ulHumur
 ?iza ruHut bakkiir btu?der tuHjez maHallaat mmiiHa

Sequence of Tenses

Under this heading, it is necessary to describe the behaviour of verbs in noun clauses and the relationships obtaining between them and the verbs in the main clause, in both English and Arabic.

In English, it is necessary to redivide also according to the verb operating in the main clause, since different types of verbs yield different relationships.

Generally speaking a present form in the main clause can be followed by a present or past form in the noun clause, e.g.

He says he can go to school to-morrow.
He says he went to school yesterday

On the other hand a past form in the main clause is usually, though not uniformly, followed by a past form in the noun clause, especially in the so-called 'Reported Speech', e.g.

He said he had often done it
He said he went to see them quite often.

In addition

To this general statement it is necessary to consider the different behaviour of certain verbs. With 'wish', for example, only the past form of a verb can occur in a noun clause whether 'wish' is present or past (in the latter case the verb in the noun clause normally appears in past perfect form). Cf.

I wish I had my lunch at school.
I wished I had known about it then.

With other verbs (think, say, believe) it is possible for the verb in the noun clause to appear in the simple present, (1) although the verb in the main clause is in the past form, e.g.

(1) This is often expressed in notional terms as follows: "This fixed sequence, however, is often not observed if it is desired to represent something as customary, habitual, characteristic, or as universally true.", Curme, op. cit, pp.354-5.

He asked the guard what time the train starts.
 He told me that Mary is quite diligent, works hard, and
sings beautifully.
 He didn't seem to know that nettles sting.

In Arabic, on the other hand, the verb in the noun clause can appear in b-imperfect form whether the verb in the main clause is in the b-imperfect or perfect form, e.g.

ba9ref šuu bya9mel kul yoom
 (I know what he does every day)
9rufut šuu bya9mel kul yoom
 (I knew what he did every day)

?ultullo bruuh būkra
 (I told him I go to-morrow)
?ultullo ruhut mbaareh
 (I told him I went yesterday)

The different possibilities of verb forms occurring in complex sentences in Arabic and English constitutes a conflict, which is reflected by an abundance of attested mistakes which can be accounted for in terms of this difference, e.g.

@ ... and I saw that I can profit from him
 @ I hoped that I finish before he comes.

which reflect Arabic,

W šuft ?unno bu?der ?ustfiid munno
t?ammalt ?unno buxloS ,?abulma byu.ii

1. D) The Simple Past in English

Contrasted with the simple present form of verbs is the simple past. This form shows no variation for person or number (except in the case of verb 'to be'). There are two principal ways in which the relation between the simple present and the simple past can be stated: an open class of verbs adds a morpheme realized as /id/ after alveolar plosives, /d/ after voiced sounds, and /t/ after other voiceless sounds. This is the regular type; the other verbs, which form a closed class, have widely different kinds of past formation, and as they form a closed class can be listed, e.g.

say : said	burn : burnt	creep:crept	bring:brought
flee; fled	learn: learnt	sleep;slept	think;thought
hear; heard	dwell;dwelt	leap ;leapt	catch;caught
sell; sold	send : sent	mean :meant	teach;taught

The simple past is compatible with adverbials of (1) past time (definite (a), or indefinite (b)) such as: yesterday, last week, once, previously; and (2) of repetition such as: every day, often. Examples are:

(1) Verb inflection of the so-called 'strong' verbs is treated in two major works :

1. Bernard Bloch, 'English Verb Inflection', *Language*, V.23 (1947), pp.399-418
2. Alphonse Juillard and James Macris, 'The English Verb System', (*Janua Linguarum XXIV*); 's-Gravenhage: 1962..

- (1) (a) He played golf last Tuesday
Columbus discovered America more than 400 years ago.
- (b) I saw this face, but I cannot remember where and
when (cf. I have seen this face...)
- (2) My mother always went to Switzerland for her holidays.
Last year I walked to my office every day.
He got angry whenever I asked for money.

The above statements cover the use of simple past forms in simple sentences. From the examples given it is clear that the simple past, in general, contrasts with the simple present in matters of compatibility with adverbials of past time; and with the present perfect (see below) in the matter of association with indicators of both definite and indefinite past time. Cf.

I saw him recently
I have seen him recently

I saw him yesterday
@ I have seen him yesterday.

For further distributional statements of the simple past form, it is necessary to go beyond simple sentences, to complex sentences.

Simple past forms in complex sentences

To the general descriptive statement that a verb in the subordinate clause of a complex sentence tends to appear in the past form if the verb in the main clause is past, it should be added that with certain verbs (wish) and with other forms (as if, if only, supposing, I'd rather, it's (high) time) the verb in

the subordinate clause must appear in the past even when the verb in the main clause is in the present form. Examples are:

I was so tired that I could not move.
 He wrote clearly so that I might get his letter.
 They asked him if he knew anything about the matter.

I wish I had another.
 Supposing you lost, what would you do?
 It's (high) time I went home.

From the above examples it seems clear that we cannot equate the simple past form of the verb with past time all the time. This is also shown in conditional clauses where the past form of the verb can appear with adverbials of present as well as future time, e.g.

If you posted the letter now, it would get there by Tuesday.
 If you booked your seats to-morrow, you wouldn't miss the show.

The fact that with certain forms (wish, as if, etc.) and in conditional clauses the past form does not associate, or is not compatible, with adverbials of past time has an interesting corollary. Cf.

- A. If only I knew the result now.
 I wish I had some cash on me.
 If I bought it now, I would have to pay in cash.
- B. If only I had known the result then.
 I wish (wished) I had had some cash on me then.
 If I had bought it yesterday, I would have had to pay in cash.

A comparison of set A and set B shows that in the above contexts the past form is compatible with adverbials of contemporary duration but not with adverbials of past time, and that only the past perfective form is compatible with adverbials of past time.

From the kind of syntagmatic relations obtaining between verbs in the past, it would be justifiable to treat 'can' & 'could', 'shall' & 'should', 'will' & 'would', 'may' & 'might' as related present and past forms in certain limited structures wherein present and past forms are mutually exclusive; cf.

I hope I can go . I'd hoped I could go
I wish I could go. He thought he could come.

1. b₁) Perfect Verbs in Arabic

Verbs in the perfect form in Arabic correspond, in general, to verbs in the simple past in English, and are deemed comparable, though not identical, in distribution.

Thus verbs in the perfect form are associated with indicators of past time, definite or indefinite, like: mbaareH (yesterday), mun saa9teen (two hours ago), marra (once), etc.

Examples are:

n9azamt 9ala Hafle badii9a mun jum9a
(I was invited to a smashing party a week ago)

Haakeeto mbaareH bu ttalifoon:
(I talked to him on the phone yesterday)

9umroma Hada 9umulli Haflet 9iid millaad
(Nobody has ever given me a birthday party)

This is as far as one can go in showing the comparability of the simple past form of English verbs with the perfect form of Arabic verbs. In other respects, the simple past in English shows a vast distributional divergence, some of which was touched on earlier in connection with the distribution of the simple present and b-imperfect forms. Other aspects of divergence will be discussed below under 'Contrastive implications'.

1. . b) Contrastive implications

While perfect forms in Arabic correspond in general (in simple sentences) to simple past forms in English, they differ in that (unlike English forms) they do not normally associate with indicators of repetition. Thus while it is possible to say in English,

In the past men frequently fought duels.
When I was young, my father always gave me my pocket money on Sunday.

Arabic requires the auxiliary 'kaan' + the imperfect form of the verb in comparable contexts. The above examples are translated in Arabic as follows:

mun zamaan nnaas kaanu yutbaarazu ktiir.
 lamma kunt zGiir ?abi kaan ya9'iini xarjiyyti yoom ul?aHad

Thus in a context of past repetition a speaker of Arabic would tend to use what he considers to be an equivalent of 'kaan' in English, i.e. 'was' and say or write:

- ① She was take her dog for a walk every day before he died.
- ② I was play football very well when I was at school.

which reflect Arabic

kaanet taaxod kalbha mušwaar kul yoom ?abulma maat.
 kunt ?ul9ab futbool mniiH lamma kunt bu lmadrase.

It seems then that speakers of Arabic will find it difficult to associate the simple past forms in English with adverbials of repetition, since the form which they readily associate with the simple past in Arabic, i.e. the perfect form, is not compatible with such adverbials. The form 'used to', which is freely variant in the above context, is more readily learned, since it is in some respect comparable with 'kaan' + the imperfect. Cf.

- (1)
 kaan yul9ab
 (he used to play)
- (2)
 buddo yul9ab
 (he wants to play)

(1) This form also corresponds to the past continuous form in English, though 'kaan 9am yul9ab' is far more common in this case. See below pp. 270 ff.

(2) See pp. 287 (infinitive vs. zero + imperfect)

Contrastive implications in complex sentences

The distribution of verbs in perfect form in complex sentences as regards the relationships obtaining between them and other verbs in dependent clauses offers points of conflict with corresponding relationships obtaining between verbs in the simple past and other forms in dependent clauses in English.

i) Conditional Sentences

In the conditional clauses of complex sentences, verbs in perfect form in Arabic associating with the particle 'iza' (if) can appear with indicators of future time and, less often, past time, the verb in the main clause appearing in b + imperfect form. Examples are:

'iza numut bakkiir ulleele butfii? našiiT uSSubuh
(If you went to bed early to-night you would get up fresh in the morning)

'iza 'a9adut 9aa?el ba9Tiik 'alam jdiid.
(If you behaved yourself I would give you a new pen)

'iza Saar li furSa bumro? 9alsekon
(When I have the opportunity I shall call on you)

'iza daras Tuul uSSeeflyye lmaadye byunjah
(If he studied all last summer he will pass)

In comparable contexts in English the simple past in the conditional clause is associated with a modal and an infinitive in the main clause, the modal appearing in -ed form, and not with the zero form of the modal or a verb in the simple present form. This divergence between English and Arabic accounts for

the following mistakes:

- ⊗ If I travelled abroad I can learn many things.
- ⊗ If he went to England he learns English very quickly.

which reflect

?iza saafart la barra bu?der ?ut9allam ?ašya ktiire
 ?iza raaH la ?ungeltra byut9allam ?ungliizi ?awnaam

With indicators of past time, the perfect verb in the conditional clause may or may not be preceded by the auxiliary 'kaan'. In such constructions, the conditional particle 'law' is used and not '?iza', and the verb in the main clause must appear in the perfect form and must be preceded by 'kaan'.

Examples are:

law kaan sume9 kalaami bi wa?tha kaan waffar 9ala nafso ta9ab ktiir.
 (If he had listened to me at the time he would have spared himself a lot of trouble)

law (kunt) smu9t lumnabbeh lamma da?? kunt maa t?axxart
 (If I had heard the alarm-clock when it rang I wouldn't have been late)

law (kunna) fataHna ttalivizyoon kunna šufna lmubaaraa.
 (If we had switched on the television we would have seen the match)

This type of construction corresponds to the so-called 'rejected condition' in English, in which the verb in the main clause appears in the perfect infinitive preceded by a past modal, the verb in the conditional clause appearing in the past perfective form, e.g.

If you had posted the letter yesterday it would have reached them by now.

It is clear from the examples given above that in conditional sentences of the above type the perfect form preceded by 'kaan' corresponds to the past perfective form in English. Now since 'kaan' is generally equated by 'was' or 'were' speakers of Arabic tend to translate literally (word for word) and use 'was'/'were' + the simple past form where they should use the past perfective form in conditional sentences of the above type. Attested mistakes reflecting this kind of transfer of Arabic verbal compounding to English are:

- ⊗ I-f you were went with us you were pleased
- ⊗ If they were told us earlier we were accepted the invitation.

which may be considered literal translations of the Arabic sentences:

law kunt ruḥut maḡna kunt nbasaṭut
 law kaanu saʔaluuna bakkiir kunna ʔbulna lḡaziime

11) Noun and Adverb Clauses

In complex sentences containing a verb in perfect form in the main clause the verb in the dependent clause may appear in perfect or b + imperfect form, in contrast to English where a verb in the past in the main clause tends to be followed by a verb in the past in the dependent clause. Examples are:

sa?alto ?iza biHubb yuŝrab funjaan ?ahwo
 (I asked him if he would like a cup of coffee)

sa?alto ?iza Habb ul?ahwe
 (I asked him if he liked the coffee)

The divergence between the different relationships obtaining between simple past forms and other forms in English and between perfect forms and other forms in Arabic is reflected in the following attested mistakes:

- @ ...and I saw that I can lift it by myself
- @ I hoped he finishes in time.
- @ I felt that it is difficult to understand.

Having discussed the simple forms in English and what are deemed to be comparable forms in Arabic, the perfective forms in English will be discussed with their nearest equivalents in Arabic.

2. Perfective

a) Present

The distribution of the present perfective form in English can best be described in relation to the simple past form. Both are compatible with indicators of past time, e.g.

I saw him recently. I read that book before.

I have seen him recently. I've read that book before.

But while the simple past is compatible with indicators of both definite and indefinite past time (yesterday, before), the present perfective form is compatible with indicators of only indefinite past time (before, already, once, recently, never, not yet). Thus we can have:

I read that book before

I read that book last week

I've read that book before

but not

⊗ I've read that book last week.

The present perfective is also associated with adverbials of duration (for a week, since January, for ten days), though these can occur with the simple present and past forms. But when they do, different implications obtain, as shown by the different extensibilities of the following examples:

Jack is in town for a week (the week is not terminated)

Jack was in town for a week (he is no longer in town)

Jack has been in town for a week (the week is over and he is still in town)

In adverbial clauses, it is associated with indicators of future time. e.g.

When I've had dinner, I'll call on you.

I'll let you know when I've heard from them.

The above statements are derived from a fairly extensive and, in some measure, controversial literature on the subject. Because the distribution of the present perfective overlaps with that of other forms, statements by grammarians concerning its use have tended to be partly complementary and partly contradictory. Now since the present perfective offers serious problems for speakers of Arabic, it seems appropriate to give a picture of how it stands with grammarians, British, European, and American.

Sweet speaks of the present perfect as being used of an action that began in the past and is related to the present time either by continuation after, or termination at, the moment of speaking.⁽¹⁾

(1) Op. cit., p.98.

(1)
Jespersen has this to say of the present perfect:

"The preterite refers to some time in the past without telling anything about the connection with the present moment, while the Perfect is a retrospective present, which connects a past occurrence with the present time, either as continued up to the present moment (inclusive time) or as having results or consequences bearing on the present moment."

Twaddell discusses the present perfective under what he calls 'Modification II (have + past participle) as follows,

"Modification II, Have + participle, explicitly links an earlier event with the current situation. It signals a significant persistence of results, a continued reliability of conclusions based on earlier behaviour (My family has lived in this town since 1638). Put negatively, have + participle asserts that there has not been any intervening changes to affect importantly the results (or the inference from the report) of an earlier event or condition. 'Four students have come out' and are still out, or one, two, or three have since reentered⁽²⁾

He contrasts it with Modification I (the simple past) for which current relevance is irrelevant,

"Note that the Past Modification by no means denies such current relevance; per se Modification I neither affirms nor denies that the earlier event or state is linked with the current situation."⁽³⁾

(1) Otto Jespersen, 'Essentials of English Grammar', George Allen and Unwin, Ltd., London, 1948, p.243.

(2) Op. cit. . . .

(3) *ibid*, . . .

(1)
A. A. Hill contrasts the simple past and the phrase with have (the present perfective). Following is a summary of his analysis:

" The simple past indicates completeness. The have of have + -ed indicates non-past, and the -ed indicates completeness. That these two forms share a component of completeness accounts for their interchangeability in certain frames: I fell/have fallen twice today. That have indicates non-past time accounts for both its incompatibility with past-time indicators (thus we cannot have 'O I have fallen twice yesterday') and for its occurrence with reference to future time in adverb clauses introduced by when (when I have finished this book tomorrow...)"

Hill disagrees with Twaddell and Jespersen in their giving the meaning 'action continuing into the present' to have + -ed. Cf. "I have read that book twenty times but I am not reading it now" which, while showing non-continuation, also contradicts Hill's rule that the form means non-past. But he recognizes that certain complexities arise in those cases where the action does continue to the present,

" In ' I have been hungry all day' there is the same component of completeness, since as has been said, the action is still going on. Completeness, however, is still here, though it is now translated from the action to the period of time. That is, whenever have phrase occurs with a time indicator which indicates a period, like all day, two hours, twenty years, or the like, it is the period which is complete." (2)

In his 'The Chronological System of the English Verb',

(1)Op. cit. pp.211-214.

(2)Ibid, p.213.

(1)
 Willian Diver discusses the different analyses of the present perfect and emerges with a rule which, as he says, is without exception. The form have + -ed indicates that the action of the verb took place in the past at an indefinite time. To quote at length:

"The proof of the hypothesis that the signal 31, have + -ed, has the meaning 'past, indefinite' will be the lack of counter examples, the fact that every time the signal appears the meaning appears also. More specific support can be either positive, instances of a peculiar affinity of the signal to other signals with the meaning 'past' or 'indefinite', or negative, instances of incompatibility of the signal with other signals having opposed meanings: 'present', 'future', or 'definite'."

"Positive support comes from words that are indefinite in meaning. Ex: 'No one has ever asked such a question before.' 'Wherever he has gone, he he has been well received.' 'He has always been a loyal subject.' It is to be noted that in these examples the unmarked term A (-ed) (i.e. the simple past form), to which the definite-indefinite opposition is irrelevant can appear equally well: 'No one ever asked such a question before'. 'Wherever he went he was well received.' 'He was always a loyal subject.' Many words, especially those indicating times or dates, may be used either definitely or indefinitely. With those it is found that the indefinite signal forces an interpretation of indefiniteness. 'He has played golf on Tuesday' cannot mean on a specific Tuesday; 'I have gone skating on Christmas day' is an equivalent to 'on a Christmas day'; 'I have played tennis on November first' means on some November first, not, for example, the specific November of this year. The unmarked term A (-ed) is here ambiguous, since being irrelevant to this opposition, it can have either a definite or indefinite interpretation: 'He played golf on Tuesday', rode a horse on Wednesday, and rested on Thursday' can be either an account of the

activities of three particular days or a statement of a programme that was repeated an indefinite number of times."

"When the occasion is made definite there is negative support for the hypothesis, since the indefinite signal cannot then occur. One cannot say 'I have played golf last Tuesday,' nor 'I have played tennis yesterday,' these all being definite occasions. Again the unmarked term A, played, can be used with these definite signals just as with the indefinite ones."

(1)

In a recent book on the English verb, Martin Joos uses the term 'phase' to refer to the present perfective form.

"The name derives from the special relation between cause and effect signified by verbs in the perfect phase"⁽²⁾.

Thus according to Joos the meaning of the perfect phase is explained by reference to the concepts of cause and effect that exist between events (and the verbs that designate them) "The perfect-marked verbs are there (in the quotation) specifically for the sake of the effects of the event they designate and that is the essential meaning"⁽³⁾. He goes on to say, "... the perfect phase is not mentioned for its own sake but for the sake of its consequences"⁽⁴⁾. He then mentions some of the things that the English perfect phase does not mean. "First, the English perfect does not mean that the specified event occurred

(1) Martin Joos, 'The English Verb', The University of Wisconsin Press, 1964.

(2) Ibid, p.138

(3) Ibid, p. 140

(4) Ibid.

previous to some other event specified with the current phase.⁽¹⁾
 "Second, a French or a German perfect does not mean that the
 specified event is uninteresting in itself, which is always
 part of what the English perfect means."⁽²⁾

It has been found necessary to dwell on the present perfect because statements of its use are at best indecisive, and because it constitutes a serious teaching problem for speakers of Arabic. This is understandable since there is no corresponding form in Arabic, the contexts characteristic of the present perfect in English being characteristic of the perfect form in Arabic, and also partially characteristic of what may be called 'participial forms' in Arabic (see p. 327). In other words the present perfect corresponds to two forms in Arabic, correspondence being only partial, and hence causing teaching problems. The difficulty, moreover, does not only lie in the fact that one form in English corresponds to two different forms in Arabic, but in the fact that the definite-indefinite distinction is irrelevant in Arabic, both perfect forms and participial forms being compatible with indicators of both definite and indefinite past time.

(1) Ibid, p. 144

(2) Ibid, p. 145

2. a₁ 1) Perfect forms in Arabic

Since the present perfective in English is compatible with indicators of indefinite time (once, before, already, etc.), its distribution overlaps in this respect with that of the perfect form in Arabic, the latter being compatible not only with indicators of indefinite time but also with those of definite past time. In other words the definite-indefinite distinction, which seems basic in the distinction: simple past - present perfective in English, is irrelevant in Arabic. Naturally this is bound to cause serious difficulties in the teaching situation, since we have one form in Arabic (the perfect form) corresponding to two forms in English: the simple past and the present perfective. Cf.

?ana šuft ha lfulum mun ?abul
(I've seen this film before)

?ana šuft ha lfulum mbaareH
(I saw this film yesterday)

where the form 'šuft' corresponds to both 'have seen' and 'saw'. This being so, the abundance of attested mistakes of the following type can be readily accounted for:

- ⊙ I have seen him yesterday.
- ⊙ The department has been established in 1953.
- ⊙ The term has ended last week.

Mistakes of similar type occur in complex sentences also, the present perfective being used instead of the simple past, e.g.

- ⓐ Show me the book you have borrowed yesterday.
 ⓑ Because I have learnt it while I was young.

2. . . a) 11) Participial forms in Arabic

In one of the functions of the present perfective form in English, where, to put it in notional terms, reference is to the state of having performed the verbal action, the present perfective corresponds to the participial form in Arabic, the latter being freely variant with the perfect form in this context. Cf.

saḡaan. fii bass maa baḡref ?eemta
 (I've heard of him, but I don't know when)

smuḡut fii bass maa baḡref ?eemta
 (I heard of him, but I don't know when)

mneen šaari ha lugraafe ?
 (Where have you bought this tie from ?)

mneen štareet ha lugraafe ?
 (Where did you buy this tie from ?)

Free variation of the participial form with the perfect form in the above context means also that it is compatible with indicators of definite past time. Thus we can have

waaḡudni bi hdiyye ššahulmaaDi
 (He promised me a present last month)

saḡaan fiiḡ mun sune
 (I heard of you a year ago)

The fact that the participial form, which corresponds partially to the present perfective in English, is also compatible with indicators of definite past time, makes it more difficult for speakers of Arabic not to associate such indicators with the present perfective in English, as the following mistakes show:

- ⊗ I have already finished the work two hours ago.
- ⊗ I have eaten an hour ago.

The last sentences can be considered literal translation of the following Arabic sentences:

(Sarli) xaales uššugul mun saa9teen
 (?uli) ?aakel mun saa9a

The bracketed forms (Sarli) and (?uli) appear very often with participial forms when the latter are associated with what may be referred to as 'indicators of points of time', i.e. l?usbuu9 ulmaaDi (last week), sunt ?alf w tusa9miyye w xamsiin (1950); and indicators of a quantity of time', i.e. saa9teen (two hours), gušriin yoom (twenty days), xams ?asaabi19 (five weeks). These correspond to the kind of adverbials associating with 'since' and 'for' respectively in English. Association of adverbials of this sort with the present perfective in English and with 'Saar/?ul' + a pronominal suffix, in Arabic, is the formal aspect of such notional statements that the present per.

fect is used of an action that started in the past and continued up to the present moment. Cf.

I have lived in this town for ten years

Saarli 9aayoš bi ha lbalad 9ašr sniin

It should be mentioned, however, that not all verbs in Arabic can have this implication when appearing in participial form and preceded by 'Saar' or '?ul' + a pronominal suffix. This will be taken up below when the distribution of participles will be discussed in more detail. Suffice it to compare the following examples at the moment:

?uli ?aakel tlut saa9aat
(I ate three hours ago)

Sarli saaken hoon tmun sniin
(I have lived (have been living) here for eight years)

2. b) Past Perfective in English

The past perfective must be considered in relation to the present perfective and the simple past forms. According to how the use of the present perfective is described, the past perfective is notionally regarded as a kind of 'shifting back' of the present perfective. Thus according to Twaddell, "the pluperfect (his term for 'past perfective') signals that at some time a still earlier event had a current relevance."⁽¹⁾

(1) Op. cit. . . .

In the same way Hill relates the past perfect to the present perfect as follows,

"If the explanation for the have phrase as composed of the two basic components non-past and completeness is acceptable, then a phrase like had presented can be guessed to contain the components past action and completeness. The guess is correct, but is not the whole picture. A typical had phrase sentence is one in two parts, like 'Mary had cooked the dinner before John came home'. The occurrence in one part of the sentence of before and a past verb places the completion as antecedent to the time of the past verb. This antecedent relationship seems always present in these forms, since it is present also in sequences like 'Mary had cooked the dinner when John came home' and 'Mary had cooked the dinner. John came home,' where there is no explicit statement of the relation in the time indicators. I should therefore redefine the components of the had phrase as not completeness and simple past action but completeness and past action antecedent to past action." (1)

It should be pointed out, however, that in many cases the past perfect is not a compulsory choice, so to speak, the simple past being equally possible. But as Hill mentions, there are certain cases where a clear meaning contrast is observable between the simple past and the past perfect.

"Curiously, there are no good examples of sentences in which either the had phrase or a simple past is required, and all situations in which one is possible can employ the other. We cannot therefore use our usual method of analysis, that of finding a meaningful element in the sentence which requires one of these constructions and assigning components in accord with such requirements. We can, however, fall back on a type of sentence in which both constructions occur, but with a clear contrast in meaning. If the sentence is 'Mary cooked the dinner when John came home,' there is no notion of antecedent completion in the first verb. That is Mary may have begun the cooking at the instant when John

(1) Op. cit., p. 214.

marched in the door. This sentence is expandable to 'Mary began to cook ...' If the sentence is 'Mary had cooked the dinner when John came home,' there is an antecedent completion, and for when we can substitute the explicit before." (1)

Examples of the past perfective forms are commonly found in complex sentences. In dependent clauses the past perfective form appears mostly when the verb in the main clause is past. This occurs in noun clauses and adverb clauses of time. Examples are:

In Noun Clauses

I asked her how long the man had been unconscious.
She told me she had bought a new hat.
The witness testified that he had seen the accused.

In Adverb Clauses

The inspector noticed that when Trent had picked up a strong scent he whistled faintly a certain melodious passage.
When the police arrived, the burglar had already gone.
After we had had tea, the discussion began.

In conditional clauses, the past perfective is associated with indicators of past time in what is known as 'rejected conditions' and in this use there is no antecedence to another past action, e.g.

If I had known you were here, I should have come at once.
I should have done it before if I had had time.

(1) Ibid. p. 214.

2. b) kaan + participial forms in Arabic

In Arabic, participial forms (see p.312) preceded by the auxiliary 'kaan' correspond to the past perfective form in English. Thus the Arabic form is used with another verb in the perfect form, the relationship obtaining between the action of the verb in perfect form and that of 'kaan' + participial form being that of antecedence. Examples are :

lamma wSulna kaan ulfulum lussa halla? badyaan
(When we arrived the film had just started)

beenma HaDDartullon ulGada kaanu naaymiin
(By the time I prepared lunch for them they had already fallen asleep)

maa tfaaja? bu nnatiije la?unno kaan daryaan fliha mun ?abul
(He was not surprised by the result because he had known about it before)

In the above examples the perfect form of the verb is freely variant with the participial form. Thus we could have

lamma wSulna kaan ulfulum lussa halla? budi

beenma HaDDartullon ulGada kaanu naamu

maa tfaaja? bu nnatiije la?unno kaan duri fliha mun ?abul

in place of the previous examples.

It should be mentioned in passing that the participial form of certain verbs when preceded by 'kaan' can exhibit different relationships with the preceding verb, and in such cases

would not correspond to the past perfective in English but rather to the past continuative. Participial forms will be discussed in more detail below (see p. 22); suffice it to compare the following at present:

lamma šufto kaan maāšī bu ššaanre9 mutl ussakraan
(When I saw him he was walking in the street like a drunk person)

lamma šufto kaan kaateb. ulmaktuub.
(When I saw him he had (already) written the letter)

With some verbs, 'kaan' + participle can correspond both to the past perfective and the past continuative forms in English. Cf.

šufto lamma kaan Taale9 mun uššūgul
(I saw him when he was leaving his work)

maa laʔeeto bu lmaktab. laʔunno kaan Taale9 ʔabul saa9a
(I did not find him because he had left his work an hour before)

2. b) Contrastive implications

In view of the above distributional facts of English past perfective and the Arabic 'kaan' + participial or perfect form, it is clear that no direct conflict occurs, since although the distributional range of 'kaan' + participial or perfect form extends beyond that of the past perfective form in English, the Arabic and English forms in question coincide in the antecedent relationship obtaining between them and other verbs in the

perfect and the simple past forms in Arabic and English respectively.

A remote indirect conflict, however, is discernible on the basis of the relative frequency of the English and Arabic forms, the latter appearing only nine times in the corpus analysed, and participial or perfect forms being substitutable almost invariably. Cf.

kunt 9aamel Hsaabi ?uxloS ?abul ?ayluul bass maa ZabaT
Hsaabi
9mult Hsaabi ?uxloS ?abul ?ayluul bass maa ZabaT Hsaabi

both sentences corresponding to English,

I had planned to finish before September but my calculation did not work.

3. Continuative forms in English

a) Present Continuative

The present continuative contrasts with the simple present in that it does not appear with adverbials characteristically associable with simple forms (usually, rarely, sometimes, generally). Thus we can have

He usually smokes a cigar

but

He is smoking a cigarette now.

It is compatible with indicators of simultaneity, limited duration, or limited repetition. Such indicators include: now, at present, at this moment, still, nowadays.

The present continuative contrasts with the simple present, as regards association with definite or indefinite indicators of time, in the same way as the present perfective contrasts with the simple past. Cf.

He sometimes smoke cigars.
He is smoking a cigarette now.

and

I have tried that brand before.
I tried this brand last week.

Examples of the present continuative in association with adverbials of limited repetition are:

William is walking to school this term.
 We aren't eating much meat nowadays.
 Jack is smoking too much these days.

The present continuative is also associated with adverbials of future time, e.g.

I am leaving next month.
 They are coming to spend the weekend with us.
 I am buying a new shirt to-morrow.

Certain verbs (smell, hear, see, notice, think, believe, know, forget, love, contain, etc.) can appear in the simple present where other verbs appear in the present continuative form, so that we have a case of free variation between the present continuative and the simple present forms of these verbs. Thus in the following examples both the simple present and the present continuative are possible:

For the moment I am believing (believe) him; he'd better turn out to be right.
 The trouble is that we're disregarding Roosevelt's advice; we are fearing (fear) fear itself.
 (Answer to an examination question) : I am understanding (understand) gender in the limited sense. (1)

3. . . a) 9am + imperfect in Arabic

9am + imperfect forms in Arabic correspond, in general, to the present continuative in English. The basis of their

(1) The examples appear in William Diver's article, op. cit. .

comparability will become clear when the distribution of ...
 9am + imperfect forms has been examined and contrasted with
 that of b + imperfect forms, so that, in general, it will be
 found that the relationships obtaining between the simple
 present and the present continuative forms in English will be
 found to correspond to those obtaining between b + imperfect
 and 9am + imperfect forms in Arabic.

Distribution of 9am + imperfect forms

9am + imperfect forms contrast with b + imperfect forms in
 more or less the same way that the present continuative and the
 simple present contrast in English. The following contexts are
 characteristic of 9am+ imperfect forms:

1. They associate with indicators of simultaneous
 duration such as halla? (now), e.g.

šuu 9am ta9mel halla? ? — 9am Salleff urraadyo
 (What are you doing now? — I am repairing the radio)

ween ?abuuk ? — bu jjneene. šuu 9am ya9mel ?
 — 9am yus?i lwardaat.
 (Where is your father? — In the garden. — What is he
 doing? — He is watering the roses.)

Cf. the last example with

šuu bta9mel 9andatan ba9d uDDuhur ? — bnaam
 (What do you usually do in the afternoon? — I sleep)

2. They appear with adverbials associated with recurrent events or states, e.g. bu SSeef (in the summer), bi ha l?ayyaam (these days), ba9d uDDuhur (in the afternoon), 9ašiyeye (in the evening), kul ?aHad (every Sunday), etc. Examples are:

9am yušturu dawaliib yaabaaniyye bi ha l?ayyaam
(They are buying Japanese tyres these days)

9am nushar la wušš uSSubuh bu SSeef
(We stay up till morning in the summer)

9adnaan 9am ydaxxen ktiir bu lleel
(Adnan is smoking a lot at night)

While most verbs in 9am + imperfect form are compatible with indicators of both simultaneous duration and repetition (as mentioned under 1 and 2 above), a small number of verbs are not compatible with indicators of simultaneous duration when appearing in 9am + imperfect form, but can appear with indicators of repetition when in this form. Such verbs normally appear in the active participle form (see pp. 124) when associated with indicators of simultaneous duration. Members of this sub-class of verbs include: naam (he slept), Habb (he loved), ?a9ad (he sat), xaaf (he feared), šaaf (he saw), sakan (he inhabited), saafar (he travelled), ?aabal (he met), etc. Thus the verbs in the following examples can associate with indicators of repetition only. With indicators of simultaneous duration, they appear in the active participle form.

A. Repetition.

waa?el 9am yxaaf ynaam lawaHdo mun jdiid
(Recently, Wael has been afraid to sleep alone)

9am yruuHu 9a l?ahwo bad uDDuhur
(They have been going to the cafe in the afternoon)

Saayer 9am ynaam bakkiir
(He has been sleeping early)

9am yukrah ulfée?a bakkiir bi ha l?ayyaam
(He has been hating to get up early these days)

B. Simultaneous duration

leeš laabes kul ha l?awaa9i ? — xaayof 9ala Haali mun
ulbard.
(Why have you got all these clothes on ? — I am afraid
of the cold)

leeš ?aa9ed 9a l?arD yaa ?ubni ?
(Why are you sitting on the floor, son ?)

fahnaan kul kalaamak.
(I understand all you say)

karhaanak ktiir bi ha llaHza
(I hate you so much at this moment)

The above sets A and B should be compared with sets
a and b below.

a. Repetition.

ljaras 9am ydu?? kul yoom ussaa9a tmaane
(The bell is ringing at eight o'clock every day)

šuu 9am ta9mel ba9d uDDuhur ? — 9am ruuH ?usbaH
(What do you do in the afternoon ? —I go swimming)

b. Simultaneous duration

ttalifoon 9am ydu?? . jaaweb 9alee.
 (The phone is ringing; answer it)

šuu 9am ta9mel ? — 9am ?us?i jjneene.
 (What are you doing ? — I am watering the garden)

Since imperfect verbs both in 'b' and '9am'-forms can associate with indicators of repetition, it may seem that we have a case of free variation between, say, 'bnaam tmun saa9aat kul yoom' (I sleep eight hours a day) and '9am naam tmun saa9aat kul yoom' (I have been sleeping eight hours a day). This, however, is not always true, as it can be seen from comparing the contrastive use of 9am + imperfect and b + imperfect forms in the following pair of sentences:

1. ššams 9am tGiib bakkiir
 (The sun has been setting early)
2. ššams butGiib bakkiir
 (The sun sets early)

In sentence 1, the form '9am tGiib' can be associated with what may be called 'indicators of recentness' such as 'mun jdiid' (recently, lately), 'Saayer' (is becoming), '?ulo', '?ulha', '?ulon' (he, she, they have been). Thus a possible extension of sentence 1 is: 'mun jdiid' (lately), so that we can have,

ššams 9am tGiib bakkiir mun jdiid
 (The sun has been setting early lately)

On the other hand, the form b + imperfect in sentence 2 is

incompatible with indicators of recentness, so that we cannot have,

⊙ ššams butGlib bakkiir mun jdiid
 ⊙(The sun sets early lately).

Moreover, we cannot have,

⊙ ššams 9am tGlib mun ulGarb.
 . (The sun has been setting in the west)

since this implies that the sun used to set in the east, setting in the west being a new course. In general terms, while both b + imperfect and 9am + imperfect forms can be used in contexts of repetition, there is always a potential indicator of relatively recent repetition associated with 9am + imperfect forms, as opposed to potential indicators of absolute repetition associated with b + imperfect forms like 'mun Tuul 9unro' (lit.: all his life). As a further illustration of the distinction between the two forms in question, it can be seen from the following two examples that, although both b + imperfect and 9am + imperfect forms can associate with an indicator of repetition like 'kul suno' (every year), only 9am + imperfect forms can associate with indicators of recent repetition.

suuriyya mun Tuul 9umurha btuzra9 ?amuH kul suno
 (Syria has always grown wheat every year)

mun jdiid suuriyya 9am tSadder ?uTun kul sune
 (Recently, Syria has been exporting cotton every year)

3. a²) Contrastive implications

The last distributional distinction between b + imperfect and 9am + imperfect forms is not paralleled by a similar distinction between simple present and present continuative forms in English, though with some verbs the present continuative in English is associable with indicators of recent repetition, as in,

We are'nt eating much meat nowadays.
 Jack is smoking too much these days.

But since there is a difference in the membership of verbs compatible with indicators of recent repetition when in the present continuative (in English) and in 9am + imperfect forms (in Arabic), a transfer of Arabic possibilities leads to mistakes of the following type:

When a girl is marrying these days her life is changing completely.

which reflects Arabic use of 9am + imperfect in

lamma lbunt 9am tutjawwaz bi ha l?ayyaam Hayaatha
 9am tutGayyar tamaaman.

3. 9am + imperfect forms can be used in complex sentences as adverbial clauses and are introduced by w , e.g.

da9usto sayyaara w huwwe 9am yu?Ta9 uššnaare9
(He was hit by a car as he was crossing the street)

naam w ?ana 9am ?uHkiilo Hkaaye
(He fell asleep while I was telling him a story)

wadda9na w huwwe 9am yubki
(He was crying when he saw us off)

3. a) 11) Contrastive implications

It is clear from the above examples that 9am+ imperfect when introduced by w corresponds to an adverbial clause in English, the verb in the adverbial clause appearing in the past continuative form. Herein we have a potential conflict since we have a contrast between English and Arabic as regards the use of continuative forms versus 9am + imperfect forms. The contrast consists in the fact that whereas continuative forms in English are variable in terms of a twofold distinction of tense (past and present), 9am + imperfect forms in Arabic do not display a corresponding distinction (except periphrastically when preceded by 'kaan').

Thus in the above examples, English requires a past continuative form, since the verb in the main clause is in the past. Now since 9am + imperfect corresponds to the present

continuative in English, a transfer of the distributional characteristic of 9am + imperfect to English present continuative forms in the above context gives rise to mistakes of the following type:

- ⊙ He arrived while the train is leaving the station.
- ⊙ Ahmad injured his leg because he got off the bus while it is still running.

which reflect Arabic

wuSel w uttreen 9am yutrok lumHaTTa
 ?aHmad 9aTab rujlo la?unno nuzel mun ulbaaS w huwwe lussa
 maaši

4. 9am + imperfect forms can occur preceded by a certain number of verbs in perfect form. These include: sume9 (he heard), šaaf (he saw), la?a (he found), Hassab (he thought), ?aam (he got up), all of which, except '?aam' (which cannot be associated with a pronominal suffix), are associated with a noun or pronominal suffix agreeing in gender and number with the verb in 9am + imperfect form. Examples are:

smu9to 9am yxaanu?ha
 (I heard him scolding her)

šufto 9am yul9ab
 (I saw him playing)

?aam 9am yurjef mun ulbard
 (He got up shivering with cold)

la?eeton^{9am} yutxaana?u
 (I found them quarrelling)

3. a²) (iii) Contrastive implications

The occurrence of 9am + imperfect in the above context corresponds to the occurrence of an -ing form or an infinitive (see pp. 191 ff) in English. Thus the sentence 'smu9to 9am yxaanu?ha' has the following two 'source' sentences: 'smu9to' (I heard him) and '9am yxaanu?ha' (he is scolding her). But whereas two corresponding 'source' sentences in English: 'I heard him', 'He was scolding her' are combined by deletion of verb to be (and the pronoun 'he'), no such deletion is required in Arabic. Cf.

smu9to + 9am yxaanu?ha → smu9to 9am yxaanu?ha

I heard him + he was scolding her → I heard him scolding her.

Now a mechanical equating of the present continuative with 9am+ imperfect forms in the above context gives rise to, and accounts for, the following mistakes:

- ⊙ I found my father is reading his newspaper.
- ⊙ They saw her is running.
- ⊙ She heard him is singing.

which reflect Arabic sentences like

la?eet ?abi 9am yu?ra jariitto
 šaafuuha 9am turkod
 smu9to 9am yGanni

where no deletion occurs in sentences operating as subordinate clauses, in the complex sentence.

5. The following context of 9am + imperfect forms is comparable with context 4. It has been found necessary to separate them in order to show further contrastive implications. In this context 9am + imperfect forms occur with preceding active participles of certain verbs characterized by the fact that they appear in participial form where other verbs appear in 9am + imperfect form. These verbs include: wu?ef (he stood up), ?a9ad (he sat down), sume9 (he heard), muši (he walked), šaaf (he saw), ?uja (he came), raah (he went), saafar (he travelled), nuzel (he got down), Tule9 (he went up), faat (he went in), mara? (he passed by), naam (he slept). The distinctive behaviour of these verbs can be seen by comparing

TTalla9 šloon ussayyara maašye bisur9a
(See how fast the car is running)

šufto naazel mun ulbaaS
(I saw him getting off the bus)

with

TTalla9 šloon uddunye 9am tušti
(See how it is raining)

šufto 9am yušturi fawaaki
(I saw him buying fruit)

Examples of 9am + imperfect forms in context 5. are:

?aa9ed 9am yutfalsaf
waa?ef 9am yuntuZer ulbaaS
Taale9 9am yur?oS mun ulfaraH
faayest 9am y9ayyeT

A literal translation of the above examples, where both active participles and 9am + imperfect forms are equated with present continuative forms in English, gives us the following impossible sentences in English:

- ⊗ He is sitting (he is) philophizing
- ⊗ He is standing (he is) waiting for the bus
- ⊗ He is going out (he is) dancing with joy
- ⊗ He is coming in (he is) snouting

The partial correspondence of the active participles of certain verbs in Arabic to the present continuative form in English (a correspondence brought about by the fact that these active participles are distributionally parallel to 9am + imperfect forms) appears also when both the active participles of the above verbs and the present continuative form of English verbs are associated with indicators of future time. Examples are:

jaayin ymaDDu 9uTlet ul?usbuu9 9andna
(They are coming to spend the week end with us)

raayeh 9a ssinema lleele
(I am going to the pictures to-night)

maaši ba9d xams da?aaye?
(I am leaving in five minutes)

It seems, then, that the present continuative in English corresponds to the 9am + imperfect and (in the case of certain verbs) to the active participle forms, in contexts associated

with indicators of simultaneous duration or future time. But when the correspondence between active participles in Arabic and present continuative forms in English is carried over to other contexts appropriate only to active participles in Arabic, the following attested mistake results:

ⓐ Oh don't mention the exam. I am afraid and I am falling (sic) of course.

'I am falling' reflecting '?ana saa?Ta' in Arabic. In this context the active participle 'saa?Ta' is not associable with indicators of simultaneous duration of future time, which one would expect the present continuative to be.

6. In the following context no conflict is involved between 9am + imperfect and the present continuative in English: when occurring with 'lussa' (still) which may be associated with a pronominal suffix in concord with the verb, e.g.

lussani 9am ?ut9allam
(I am still learning)

lbadu lussaaton 9am ysaafu 9a jjmaal
(The bedouins are still travelling on camels)

lussata ddunye 9am tušti
(It is still raining)

Cf.

lussato naayem
(He is still sleeping (asleep))

3. b) The Past Continuative in English

The use of the past continuative is subject to debate
(1)
among grammarians. According to Jespersen,

"The chief use of the expanded tenses is to serve as a frame round something else, which may or may not be expressly indicated ... In a connected narrative, therefore, the expanded tenses often occur in a description of the general situation, which serves as a setting to what happened, which is expressed by means of simple tenses:

'One morning the three sisters were together in the drawing room; Mary was sewing, Lucy was playing the piano, and Jane was doing nothing; then suddenly the door opened and John burst into the room, exclaiming ...'"

(2)
But as Diver has pointed out, in 'It rained all day. It rained as I read in my study. It rained while I was eating my dinner. It rained as I prepared for bed' the simple past indicates the 'frame', the overlapping action, and the expanded tense represents the action set against that background, directly contrary to Jespersen's rule.

(3)
According to Hill, the past form of the phrase with -ing (the past continuative) can be assigned a component of incompleteness, duration being a corollary of incompleteness in 'When Mary came home, John was cooking dinner, but it wasn't done!
(4)
But as Diver also pointed out, in the sentence 'I was writing

(1) Op. cit. pp.263-264
(2) Op. cit., p.144
(3) Op. cit.,p.209
(4) Op. cit., p.145

for an hour while the band played, and they were half-way through their programme when I finished', the -ing phrase, was writing, is complete and the simple past, played, is incomplete, since, at the end of the sentence, the one is finished and the other is not.

The difficulty in the description of the use of the past continuative form lies in the fact that the relationship between the simple past and the past continuative cannot be always inferred from the relation between the simple present and the present continuative. In other words the past continuative is not only opposed to the present continuative in terms of present to past, nor is it opposed to the simple past in terms of completeness versus incompleteness. According to Diver, the basic notional characteristic of the past continuative is 'past, definite' and the opposition is between the past continuative and the present perfective, whose positive characteristic is 'past, indefinite'. Thus,

"Support of the meaning 'definite' of the signal was -ing may be expected to be, and is, the reverse of that for have -ed. Returning to the examples above we find, with the indefinite ever, the expected incompatibility: 'No one was ever asking such a question before' does not occur. 'Wherever he was going he was being well received' would not normally occur if the indefiniteness of wherever can be confined within a definite occasion, as in, 'Wherever he was going in 1960 he was being well received, but that's no longer the case'. Similarly in the example with always reinterpretation of the sentence is forced by the introduction of the definite meaning. 'He was always being

Text cut off in original

a loyal subject' will be interpreted as 'He was always putting on the appearance of being a loyal subject.' If always is left out of the sentence for the moment, the shift from 'He has been a loyal subject' to 'He was being a loyal subject' shifts the emphasis from an indefinite state of affairs to a definite action. Introduction of always in the latter sentence extends the definite occasion in time (the meaning 'duration' is not relevant to AS (past continuative), therefore the definite occasion can be long or short, indifferently), yet it does not make it indefinite. A 'definite occasion' in past time' does not extend into the present, even when modified by always, whereas an indefinite occasion being without specific boundaries may. This difference is clearly seen in 'He was always being a loyal subject' as opposed to 'He has always been a loyal subject'. (This unbounded quality of the indefinite may well account for the tendency to speak of 'current relevance'.")

"In examples with dates that can be either specific or non-specific, the presence of was - ing always forces a specific interpretation. 'He was playing golf on Tuesday' and 'I was playing tennis on November first' refer to definite occasions."(1)

If we were to accept Diver's account of the past continuative, as it seems justifiable to do in the light of the evidence presented, we could say that the past continuative is used with indicators of definite past time, and is compatible with indicators of duration (or incompleteness).

3. b¹) kaan + 9am + imperfect in Arabic

English verbs appearing in the past continuative correspond, in general, to Arabic verbs appearing in 9am + imperfect forms preceded by 'kaan'. Examples are:

(1) Op. cit., pp. 157-158.

lamma wSult 9a lbeet kaanet ?ummi 9am t?iim uSSufra
(When I got home mother was clearing the table)

kunna 9am nutfarraj 9a ttalivizyoon lamma smu9na lxabar
(We were watching television when we heard the news)

kaanu 9am yvstuglu Tuul ulleel mbaareH
(They were working all night yesterday)

In the case of the verbs mentioned on p.257, correspondence obtains between the past continuative forms in English and kaan + participle forms in Arabic, e.g.

lamma nuzel kaanet ussayyara lussaatha maaŕye
(When he got off the car was still running)

kaanet waa?fe 9a rrSiif lamma ŕaafet ulHaadse
(She was standing on the pavement when she saw the accident)

When these verbs do appear in the 9am + imperfect form preceded by 'kaan', they do not correspond to English past continuative forms, since in this form they associate with indicators of repetition and correspond to 'used to' + infinitive or to the simple past form in English, e.g.

kaanu 9am yzuuruuna bass baTTalu halla?
(They used to visit us but they no longer do so)

kaan 9am ynaam bakkiir ?abulma wuldet ?uxto
(He used to go to bed early before his sister was born)

kaanet 9am truuH ma9 ?uxtha 9a lmadrase ba9deen Saaret
truuH laHaalha (1)
(She used to go school with her sister; later on she started going by herself)

(1) In all the above examples, 9am+imperfect is freely variant with zero+imperfect.

3. b²) Contrastive implications

Except in the case of the special verbs just discussed there seems to be a straightforward correspondence between the past continuative in English and the 9am + imperfect (or participial) forms preceded by 'kaan' in Arabic. However, since in the case of the last examples 'kaan' + 9am + imperfect corresponds to the simple past or to 'used to' + infinitive, a mechanical equating of the Arabic forms 'kaan' + 9am + imperfect with the past continuative in English explains the following mistakes:

- © We were playing all afternoon every summer.
- © My mother was helping me with my lessons when I was young.

which reflect Arabic,

kunna 9am nul9ab Tuul ba9d uDDuhur kul Seef
 ?ummi kaanet 9am tsaa9udni bi druusi lamma kunt zGiir.

The last sentences are translatable into English as follows:

We used to play all afternoon every summer.
 Mother used to help me with my lessons when I was young.

4. Perfective & Continuative

We have seen that perfective and continuative forms can co-occur (p. 209). Thus we can have present perfective continuative and past perfective continuative, and it is interesting to examine their distribution.

4. a) Present perfective continuative

Forms appearing in the present perfective continuative are compatible with indicators of indefinite and extended past time, e.g.

I have been trying to get in touch with you for two days.
He has been teaching this subject for years.
She has been waiting for him since last November.

It should be pointed out that with certain verbs free variation may obtain between the present perfective and the present perfective continuative, the difference between the two being a difference of emphasizing the duration in the case of the present perfective continuative. Thus the second example above may perhaps be regarded as freely variant with

He has taught this subject for years.

4. a¹) Saar + Prs. + 9am + imperfect

The present perfective continuative corresponds to 9am + imperfect forms in Arabic preceded by 'Saar' or '?ul' + pronominal suffix. Examples are:

?ulo 9am ydallel 9alecha ?arba9 sniin
 (He has been trying to sell it for four years)

Sarlon mun uSSubuh 9am y9azzlu
 (They have been spring cleaning since the morning)

Sarli sunteem 9am ?usta9mel bayyaarti
 (I have been using my car for two years)

As was the case in other contexts (see pp. 157), certain verbs appear in active participle form preceded by 'Saar' or '?ul' + a pronominal suffix, where other verbs appear in 9am + imperfect form. Examples are:

Sarlina saakniin hoon tlut sniin
 (We have been living here for three years)

?ulha lmaTar naazle mun uSSubuh
 (It has been raining since the morning)

From the above examples it seems that there is a straightforward correspondence between the present perfective continuative in English and 9am + imperfect (or participial) forms preceded by 'Saar' or '?ul' + pronominal suffix agreeing with the verb in person, number, and gender. Hence no problems are involved in this respect.

4. b) Past Perfective Continuative

Forms appearing in the past perfective continuative form are compatible with indicators of extended past time which is antecedent to another point of past time, e.g.

During the last three weeks she had been receiving through the post a series of photographs taken in the city streets.

When I opened the window I found that it had been raining all night.

He had been working ten hours a day before he retired.

4. b¹) kaan + Saar/?ul + 9am + imperfect

The past perfective continuative in English corresponds to kaan + Saar/?ul + pronominal suffix + 9am + imperfect in Arabic, e.g.

kaan Sarlo 9am yuHki tlut saa9aat lamma ntahet ulmunaqaše
(He had been talking for three hours when the discussion came to an end)

lamma kuseb ulbuTuule maa kaan Sarlo 9am yul9ab sunteen
(When he won the championship he had not been playing for more than two years)

lHarii?a kaan ?ulha saa9a 9am tuštuGel lamma ktašafuuha
(The fire had been raging for an hour when they discovered it).

Cf. the above sentences with the following where the active participle is used instead of 9am + imperfect form:

maa kaan Sarlo saa9a naayem lamma fayya?uu
(He had not been sleeping for an hour when they woke him up)

wu?e9 9a ddaraj ba9dma kaan ?ulo naazel w Taale9 ?aktar
mun 9asur marraat.

(He fell on the stairs after he had been up and down more than ten times)

As in the case of the present perfective continuative, the correspondence between the past perfective continuative and *kaan + Saar/?ul + 9am + imperfect* is a straightforward one and hence there seems to be no conflict that may cause any teaching problems in this context.

5. a) Passive forms in English

The type of transposed active-passive correspondence into which a number of English sentences enter is illustrated by:

Active Sentences

The teacher explains the lesson.

Lightning struck their house.

They'll pick her up at seven.

Passive Sentences

The lesson is explained by the teacher.

Their house was struck by lightning.

She'll be picked up at seven by⁽¹⁾ them.

Notice that in the last example the nominative absolute form 'her' of the active sentence appears in the nominative conjunct form 'she' in the transposed order of the passive sentence.

In general, only verbs belonging to the so-called transitive group can appear in the passive form. This is not, however completely true, since even verbs classified as intransitive verbs can also appear in the passive form when accompanied by a preposition, e.g. 'stroll' in 'a garden made to be strolled in'.

Since reference has just been made to distinctive use with prepositions, perhaps it is appropriate to mention in passing that English is also characterized by complex forms of verbal + particle, which are broadly divisible into

(1) Jespersen quotes the figure 70% of passive sentences in English literature (?) appearing without the performer of the action being preceded by 'by'.

non-phrasal	non-prepositional ('to take')
	prepositional ('to take to')
phrasal	non-prepositional ('to put up')
	prepositional ('to put up with') ⁽¹⁾

Further examples of verbs which do not occur in passive form except when accompanied by prepositions are:

It isn't a thing to be laughed at
 The doctor was sent for
 The bed had not been slept in

Sentences of type IV (see p.29), which contain a doubly transitive verb, i.e. having two objects, can have two passive transforms, in the first of which the direct object 'becomes' subject, and in the second one of which the indirect object 'becomes' subject. Cf.

They offered me a job
 A job was offered (to) me by them
 I was offered a job by them

(1) The distinction of these types of verbs is due to T.F. Mitchell in his 'Syntagmatic Relations in Linguistic Analysis', Transactions of the Philological Society, pp.103-106. It should be mentioned here that these verbal categories constitute a serious teaching problem, Arabic having no such categories to match what is a characteristically English verbal type.

On the other hand sentences of type V (see p.32) can have only one passive transform. Cf.

They made him president
 He was made president (by them)
 @ President was made him by them.

Under passives in English mention should be made of those rare verbs which either occur only in the passive form or most frequently so, e.g. reincarnate, bear, drown. Examples are:

One boy fell out of a canoe and was drowned
 Lincoln was born in Kentucky
 Some people think they will be reincarnated after death.

In some cases, non-finite forms are freely variant with passive forms. Thus 'your shoes need cleaning' is freely variant with 'your shoes need to be cleaned'.

The verb 'get' in conversational English is tending to replace 'be' in passive constructions, e.g.

He got married last month.
 John got elected without difficulty.

The above examples are not transforms of active sentences. Thus 'He got married last month' is not a transform of 'Someone married him'. One view is that 'married' is the complement of a copulative verb 'got' (like 'be') just as an adjective like 'sick' or 'rich' might be. Cf. 'He was married last month'.

In the following examples, however, 'got' is closer to the passive auxiliary 'be':

He got arrested for speeding yesterday.
I get blamed for everything.
She gets upset easily.

In some cases 'get' is used with an -en form in preference to passives with 'be' because these are not clearly distinguishable from combinations of 'be' and a participial adjective. Thus 'He was married a year ago' is ambiguous. It can mean either (1) someone authorized to perform the ceremony did so a year ago, or (2) he was in possession of a wife a year ago, having gone through the ceremony before that time. 'He got married a year ago' is unambiguous. It can mean only that he arrived at the married state a year ago.

(1) I have drawn on Ralph B. Long's 'The Sentence and its Parts. A Grammar of Contemporary English', The University of Chicago Press, 1961, pp.113-119, in my treatment of passives.

5. b) Passive Verbs in Arabic

Passive verbs in Arabic are distinguished by their phonological structure in terms of C and V and by the prefixal markers -n, -t, e.g.

Active Verbs

Darab uTTaabe
(he hit the ball)

?ara luktaab
(he read the book)

šawwaš ?afkaaron
(he confused their thoughts)

9alla?u nnataa?ej
(they published the results)

Passive Verbs

nDarbet uTTaabe
(the ball was hit)

n?ara luktaab
(the book was read)

tšawwašet ?afkaaron
(their thoughts were
confused)

t9alla?et unnataa?ej
(the results were pub-
lished)

In sentences containing passive verbs, the object in corresponding active sentences 'becomes' subject (i.e. it agrees with the verb in number and gender), e.g.

Active Sentences

nuHna 9azamna 9amme 9uffat
(we invited Aunt Iffat)

luwlaad kasaru TTAawle
(the boys broke the table)

zaa9u l?axbaar
(they announced the news)

baa9 uttalivizyoon
(he sold the television set)

Passive Sentences

9amme 9uffat n9azmet
(Aunt Iffat was invited)

TTaawle nkasbet
(the table was broken)

l?axbaar nzaa9et
(the news was announced)

nbaa9 uttalivizyoon
(the television set was
sold)

the position of the subject in a passive sentence can be before or after the verb, post-verbal position being less frequent. Thus we can have

- ma9aawya n?abal bu ljaam9a
 or
 n?abal ma9aawya bu ljaam9a
 (naawya was accepted at the university)
- nkasret uTTaawle
 or
 TTaawle nkasret
 (The table was broken)

5. c) Contrastive implications

Arabic passive forms correspond in general to passive forms in English. There are, however, differences of use between the passive forms in the two languages, which constitute conflicts creating teaching problems for native speakers of Arabic.

Since Arabic passive forms are not periphrastic in contrast with English passive forms, conflict arising in this area may lead to, and explains, the copiousness of attested mistakes of the following type:

- ⊗ Television is the most magnificent apparatus among those furniture (sic) which found in the house.
- ⊗ Everybody liked the plays which performed on the Military Theatre.
- ⊗ He killed by a man.
- ⊗ He lost his sight and nothing left for him.
- ⊗ From what mentioned above...
- ⊗ many schools established in Syria recently.

Moreover, since the subject in a passive sentence can precede or follow the verb in Arabic, and since the subject must precede the passive verb in corresponding English sentences, the following mistakes commonly occur:

- ⓐ Were scattered the buildings round the place.
- ⓑ Was published all the results.

The last sentence reveals two kinds of conflict between Arabic and English. The first one relates to word-order; the second, to the possibilities of agreement or non-agreement between the passive verb and the subject. The agreement possibilities in Arabic are as follows:

When the subject is an indefinite noun following the passive verb, the latter may be singular or plural regardless of the number of the subject. Thus we can have

nwajad jamaa9a mutfaanmiin

or

nwajadu jamaa9a mutfaahmiin

(There happened to be some people who got on well together)

n9azam 9anna dyuuf ktiir

or

n9azamu 9anna Dyuuf ktiir

(Many guests were invited to our house)

In the above context, the first sentences of the two pairs are more frequent, and this is especially so when the indefinite noun is in the dual or is preceded by a numeral, e.g.

nkasar 9ašr SHuun
(ten plates were broken)

n9azam tlaatiin Doof
(thirty guests were invited)

nbaa9 xams sayyaaraat bi yoom waaHod
(five cars were sold in a single day)

nfajar ma9i duulaabeen 9a TTarii?
(two tyres burst on my way)

When the subject is definite, however, agreement between the verb and the subject is always the case, whether the subject precedes or follows the verb, e.g.

TTullaab nfaHaSu
(the students were examined)

or

nfaHaSu TTullaab

lHaramiyye nkamašu
(the thieves were caught)

or

nkamašu lHaramiyye

With prepositional verbs (see p.219), we can have two possible transforms of the active sentence. Thus the sentence 'DuHku 9ala ?ubni' (they laughed at my son) can be transformed into

nDaHak 9ala ?ubni

or

?ubni nDaHak 9alee
(My son was laughed at)

In the last sentence the prepositional particle '9ala'

is associated with a pronominal suffix agreeing in number and gender with the noun '?ubni'. This characteristic of Arabic involves a point of conflict with English and gives rise to mistakes of the following type:

- ① Many girls was spoken about them.
- ② We were made fun of us.
- ③ Good handwriting is depended on it.

which reflect Arabic

ktiir banaat nHaka 9aleehon
 nDaHak 9aleena
 lxaTT ulHulu yu9tamad 9alee.

Further examples of passive propositional verbs are:

Active Sentences

kaanu yu9tundu 9ala ?abuuhon 1.
 (they depended on their father) 2.

battu bi mas?alt ulmunHa
 (they settled the question
 of the scholarship)

Passive Sentences

?abuuhon kaan yu9tamad 9alee
 kaan yu9tamad 9ala ?abuuhon
 (their father was depended on)

1. mas?alt ulmunHa nbatt fiiha
 2. nbatt fii mas?alt ulmunHa
 (the question of the scholar-
 ship was settled)

While passive verbs can precede or follow their subjects in the above contexts, they can only follow their subject when the latter is an indefinite noun in a 'fii' or 'participle' sentence (see p. 11), an object in a verbal sentence, or a predicate in a nominal sentence. Examples are:

?ulha Soot byunsumo9
(she has an acceptable voice)

fii ?ašya maa btunHka
(there are things that cannot be said)

štareet ?alam maa byunkusor
(I bought an unbreakable pen)

haadi ?ahwe btunšureb
(this is drinkable coffee)

As is the case of other verbal forms, the passive verb in the above examples occupies the place of an adjective. Cf. the above sentences with the following:

?ulha Soot Hulu
(she has a nice voice)

fii ?ašya surriyye
(there are certain secret things)

štareet ?alam jdiid
(I bought a new pen)

haadi ?ahwe tazza
(this is fresh coffee)

English passive verbs can occur in parallel contexts, but as we have seen, in connection with relative pronouns (see p.134), they must be introduced by relative pronouns, whether the antecedent is definite (preceded by 'the') or not. Thus parallel to mistakes considered in relation to relative clauses with active verbs (see p.134), the following could occur with passive verbs:

⊗ Handwriting is something depended on

⊗ This is a handwriting cannot be accepted.

Non-Finite Forms in English
and
Comparable Forms in Arabic

In preceding sections forms classifiable as nominals and verbals were considered. In the following, forms sharing syntactical characteristics with both nominal and verbal forms are discussed and contrasted with what are deemed to be comparable forms in Arabic. These forms are called non-finite forms in English and include infinitives, -ing forms, and -en forms.

1. a) Infinitives in English

The infinitive in English, which consists of the base or dictionary form of the verb, is perhaps more verbal than nominal, to the extent that, for example it cannot be preceded by the definite or indefinite article, an adjective, or an -ing form, and that it can colligate with a noun-object, or an adverb, and that it has a continuative, perfective, and passive forms. On the other hand, its nominal character is shown by the facts that it can occupy certain positions typically occupied by nouns, and that in some cases it varies freely with the -ing form.

In the following examples the verbal character of the infinitive is clear since it can be followed by a nominal

(a noun, or a pronoun in nominative absolute form) just as is the case with a finite form. Cf.

I see him every day
with
I want to see him every day

Colligation with an adverb is illustrated the following example:

She likes to dress elegantly
(Cf. She dresses elegantly)

Moreover, the infinitive appears in simple (to ask), continuative (to be asking), perfective (to have asked), passive (to be asked), continuative and perfective (to have been asking), continuative and passive (to be being asked), perfective and passive (to have asked), and perfective, continuative, passive forms (to have been being asked).

On the other hand, the positions occupied by the infinitive in the following examples are characteristic of nouns. Cf.

- a) Sin is human
To err is human
- b) The difficulty is the fulfilment (of the promise)
The difficulty is to fulfill (the promise)
- c) I like swimming
I like to swim

Infinitives with & without 'to'

Distinction is commonly made between the infinitive with and without 'to' (I wish to see it ; I can see it). The infinitive appears without 'to' after the modal auxiliaries (can, may, must, shall, will, etc.) and in a few other cases: after had rather, can't but, do no more than, do anything but, do anything so (adj) as; also after let, make, help; and after a verb + object when the verb is a member of a sub-class of verbs which include: see, feel, hear, have, let, make, see, watch. Examples are:

I must see him immediately.
 I had rather die than fail.
 I can't but thank you.
 Live and let live.
 He felt his hands tremble.

Infinitives and -ing forms

Infinitives and -ing forms are interchangeable in some contexts and are contrastive in others. Thus we can have either of them in:

He began questioning us (to question us).
 I propose leaving (to leave) immediately.
 Nobody really loves working (to work).

In the following, the use of the infinitive or the -ing form involves a contrast:

Just stop thinking what you're doing (thinking is undesirable)

Just stop to think what you're doing (thinking is desirable)

Only the infinitive is possible in the following

examples:

He decided to go and look for himself.

They asked her to sing a song.

Conversely, only -ing forms are possible in the following

examples:

I believe in going straight to the point.

I can't help laughing when I see him.

The -ing form - infinitive distinction operates lexically and grammatically. Certain lexical items invariably or preferentially associate with the infinitive or the -ing form. Thus: ache, afford, arrange, attempt, contrive, decide, deserve, determine, endeavour, expect, fail, hesitate, hope, plan, prepare, preserve, pretend, proceed, promise, propose, reckon, refuse, resolve, seem, seek, strive, write, associate with an infinitive; and avoid, complete, delay, enjoy, finish, postpone, prevent, risk, associate with an -ing form. Cf. 'enjoy doing something' with 'like to do something'.

Grammatically, the frame

I like --- (and) I should like --- if I had time

may be completed by either 'to read' or 'reading'. But

I should like ---

can only be completed by 'to read'.

Infinitives as adjuncts

Infinitives can be used as adjuncts in different constructions:

a) (1) They follow nouns which are related to a verb or an adjective that are usually followed by an infinitive.

Cf.

His attempt to repair the ravages failed
I have had the good fortune to know this man

with

He attempted to repair the ravages
I was fortunate to know this man

Further examples of infinitives in this position are:

The decision to resume work was taken at that meeting.
A refusal to compromise kept him out of office.

She has not the ability to take up any important form of public work.

From this she emerged with a determination not to repeat the experience.

Infinitives may also follow nouns not related to verbs or adjectives, e.g.

They swore an oath to carry out their duties diligently

He made up his mind to learn the hymn himself
 He had not the heart to play a record.

Of. They swore { that they would come back
 { to come back

(ii) The last type of construction is different from the following type where the infinitive is an adjunct to a noun, and is filling the position of a relative clause.

Examples are:

His greatest need is somebody to help him to overcome his weakness.

He was not the only rebel to trouble the authorities.
 Glasgow was the next university to be established.

Of. Glasgow was the next university that was established.

(Notice that the nouns modified by the infinitives in the above examples are all complements)

(iii) In another type of construction the infinitive follows a noun which would elsewhere be the object of the verb in its finite forms. Of.

He had many scathing remarks to make about the matters discussed.

He made scathing remarks about the matters discussed.

Further examples are:

He has plenty of money to spend.

There were so many problems to settle.

The Chancellor had nothing to say.

b) (i) Infinitives follow adjectives associated with feelings or states of mind like (afraid, ambitious, anxious),
e.g.

The nation was ready to entrust its fate to one who both knew and had foreseen.
I am sorry to say that we have not had any indication of it.
I was glad to be relieved of this unwanted burden.

(ii) The following examples differ from the last ones in that they can be related to the possibility of transposition with 'it' . Thus cf.

Cigarettes are easy to buy
The temptation is hard to resist
They ought to make the pool coupons easier to fill in
with

It is easy to buy cigarettes
It is hard to resist the temptation
They ought to make it easier to fill in pool coupons.

Cf. also, the following example which cannot be transposed with 'it',

He is eager to please

and contrast,

He is easy to please
which can be transposed with 'it',

It is easy to please him.

c) Infinitives occur with verbs and are substitutable by adverbial clauses of purpose, condition, or result.

Examples are:

He came here to speak to me (that he may speak to me)
To be effective (If it is going to be effective) a poem
must be beautiful.

They were strong enough to win the battle (that they
won the battle)

The infinitive occurs also in what may be called
'absolute free adjuncts', e.g.

John Norman endowed his guild with his tenements, they
to provide a beam light and a lamp to light the lane.
A Military Training Bill was passed calling up men of
age 20 - 21 for six month's training, conscientious
objectors to be assigned to various non-combatant duties.

The subject and object of an infinitive

The subject of an infinitive is a nominal which would agree with the verb in terms of tense-number when that appears in finite form. Thus in 'He wants to talk to you', the subject of the finite verb 'he' is also the subject of the infinitive 'to talk', since the sentence can be considered a transform of 'he wants' and 'he talks to you'.

As to the object of an infinitive, the latter can be followed by a noun or pronoun object just as it is the case with a finite verb, pronoun objects appearing in nominative absolute form. Cf.

I see him every day.
I want to see him every day.

In cases where the subject of the finite verb is not also the subject of the infinitive, the latter occurs preceded by 'for', e.g.

I should be sorry for you to think that.
He was quite willing for everyone else to come.
He left it for me to read it.

For + N/Pr. + to + infinitive often seems a nominalizing device, cf.

For him to do so was disgraceful
His doing so was disgraceful

and seems to be tied to 'subjectival' position. Cf.

It was disgraceful of him to do so.

This same device (for + N/Pr. + to + inf.) can form a construction occupying the position of the subject of a finite verb or the nominal part of the predicate, e.g.

For a man to tell how human life began is hard
(cf. it is hard for a man to tell how human life began)

For you to stop here is an outrage.
(cf. it is an outrage for you to stop here)

The tendency was for the instruction to become more religious.

'Omission' of infinitive

The sentences

I did not want to stay the night but he begged me to.
 I asked them to play but they didn't want to.
 I can't do as much for them as I'd like to.
 She went home because her mother made her.

may be regarded as compounded of

'I did not want to stay the night'

and

'He begged me to stay the night'

'I asked them to play'

and

'They didn't want to play.'

'I can't do much for them'

and

'I'd like to do much for them'

'She went home'

and

'Her mother made her go home'

When these components are linked together as by 'but',
 'as -- as --', and 'because' in the examples, the infinitival
 form of the second component is omitted.

1. b) 0 + imperfect forms in Arabic.

Arabic has no non-finite forms matching the infinitival form of a verb in English, for example in its characteristic feature of not agreeing with a preceding nominal. Verbal forms in Arabic, whether verbs or participles, are finite, i.e. they agree with their nominal subject in terms of number and gender.

However, it is possible on parallel distributional grounds to discover partially comparable behaviour between the infinitive in English and 0 + imperfect forms in Arabic. Thus the following occurrences of the infinitive in English are paralleled by 0 + imperfect in Arabic:

a) following a verb (in object function). Cf.

She likes to sleep early
butHubb tnaam bakkiir

I want to know
buddi ?a9ref

b) following a noun (in adjunct function). Cf.

She has not the ability to shoulder big responsibilities
maa 9andha ?ustiTaa9a tutHammal mas?uuliyyaat kbaar

His attempt to cheat was discovered
muHaawalto yGu55 nka5fet.

As pointed out above, the O + imperfect of verbs has only a partially parallel distribution with the infinitive in English and it is necessary, therefore, to examine its distribution in Arabic more fully.

Distribution of O + imperfect

Generally speaking, O + imperfect forms must always be preceded, whether immediately or otherwise, by other forms which belong to special categories.

1. It is most frequently preceded by forms classifiable as auxiliary verbs, agreement between which and the O + imperfect forms is operable in terms of number, person, and gender.

Examples are:

byu?der yruuH ?iza buddo
(He can go if he wants to)

bdiit ?udros mun ?awwal ussune
(I started to study from the beginning of the year)

Haawalt ?u?un9o laaken maa ?durt
(I tried to convince him but I couldn't)

A particular group of auxiliary verbs, whether appearing in perfect, b + imperfect, or in participial form, is characterized by the fact that the only imperfect forms of verbs they can colligate with is O - imperfect. Members of this group of auxiliary verbs include : xaaf (he feared), 9uref (he knew),

naawal (he tried), nusi (he forgot), tzakkar (he remembered),
xalla (he let), t?ammal (he hoped), and starja (he dared).

Examples are:

Following verbs:

suluukon xallaana nkawwen fukra miiHa
(Their behaviour made us form a good opinion)

maa 9aad starja yuhki ma9ha
(He no longer dared to speak to her)

?iza Haawalti tuktbi 9ala mahlek biSiir xATtek Hulu
(If you tried to write slowly your handwriting would become beautiful)

Following participles:

?unti mu?ahhale tuHki di na InawDuu9
(You are qualified to talk on this subject)

nunna mus9uddiin n9aawunkon
(We are prepared to help you)

mut?ammel yuxloS bukra
(He is hoping to finish to-morrow)

2. It colligates with preceding forms that may be classified as follows:

- (1)
(i) modal particles: raH, munken, bijuuz, laazen
(ii) connectives: ?abulma, kulma, Hatta, la, ?unno, law, bass

(1) Notice the parallelism with modal auxiliaries in English, which colligate with a following infinitive without 'to'.

Examples are:

(1) raH ?ub9ato bu lbariid
(I will send it by post)

mumken zuurkon bukra
(I may visit you to-morrow)

laazem ?uttuSel bu ljaam9a
(I must ring up the university)

(11) wSult ?abulma yuxlo9 uddars
(I arrived before the lesson finished)

kulna yu?9od yudros kaan ynaam
(whenever he sat to study he would fall asleep)

jiib xaTiibtak ma9ak Hatta nut9arra9 9alocha
(Bring your fiancé with you so that we may get to know her)

byusnu?? ?unno nsaa9do
(He deserves to be helped (that we should help him))

Ttullaab ujjudad biTawwlu natta yutkayyafu
(New students take a long time to adapt themselves)

3. in an adjectival phrase it follows a noun and agrees with it in number and gender. Examples are:

buddi raadyo yjiib kull lumHaTTaat
(I want a radio that receives all stations)

Cf. buddi raadyo jdiiid
(I want a new radio)

Saarlo furSa yurban luuf ulloeraat bass rafaDha
(He had the opportunity to win thousands of pounds but he turned it down)

Here again the infinitive in English shows a parallel distribution. Cf.

He needs someone to help him
byuHtaaj waaHed ysna9do.

4. It occurs after certain forms compounded with pronominal suffixes. These forms include: 9aliyyi, ?ulak, fukri, waajubna, e.g.

9aliyyi SalleH miit war?a
(I have to correct a hundred papers)

?ulak tlaa?i kul 9ii HaaDer
(You can expect to find everything ready)

fukri truuH ?unte tu?un9o
(I think you should go and persuade him (lit.: my thought is for you.....))

It may be observed that the connective particle '?unno' is potential in all the above examples before O + imperfect. Thus the last example can appear as follows:

fukri ?unno truuH ?unte tu?un9o.

Moreover, the forms in question can be substituted by a verb, in which case parallelism with English becomes readily apparent. Cf. the last example with the following,

fakkart ?unno truuh ?unte tu?un9o
(I thought you should go and persuade him)

5. It is used in negative contexts corresponding to affirmative imperative sentences, in which case the imperfect

verb can only be in the second person, e.g.

truko : laa tuturko
(leave him : don't leave him)

ruuH : laa truuH
(go : don't go)

6. Certain adjectives appearing in the comparative form (see p.116) and colligated with the definite article are followed by 0 + imperfect forms. Examples are:

l?aHsan tuttuSlu fiina
(It is best for you to call us)

l?afDal tuHki dduGri
(It is better to tell the truth)

l?awfa? tudfa9 na?di
(It is more beneficial to pay in cash)

Other adjectives (notably 'muhimm', 'Daruuri') appear in the positive form (see p.100) prefixed with the definite article and followed by 0 + imperfect forms, e.g.

lmuhimm yunjaH
(The important thing is for him to succeed)

DDaruuri taaxduu 9a lmustašfa
(It is necessary that you should take him to hospital)

The last two examples can be transformed into

najaaHo huwwe lmuhimm
(His success is the important thing)

?axdo 9a lmustašfa huwwe DDaruuri
(Taking him to hospital is the necessary thing (to do))

where a nominal (what is traditionally called 'maṣdar' in Arabic (see p. 314) is the subject, and the pronoun 'huwwa' links the subject to the predicate.

This distributional characteristic of O + imperfect is paralleled by a comparable distribution of the infinitive in English in sentences introduced by 'it', where the infinitive is said to be the deferred subject or in apposition to 'it'. Cf.

It is best to call us
It is better to tell the truth

which can be transformed into

To call us is best
To tell the truth is better.

So far, it has been possible to find a partial distributional correspondence between O + imperfect forms in Arabic and infinitival forms in English. The following distributional characteristics of O + imperfect, however, are not matched by those of the infinitive in English, and are given to complete the distributional picture of O + imperfect.

7. O + imperfect forms are very common in narrative contexts. The auxiliary verbs 'kaan' or 'Saar' are always potential before O + imperfect forms in such contexts, e.g.

mbaareH ?uxto sabbutni. ?aam jaab li 9aSaayo w ?alli
Drubiiha. ?aamet harbet. w (Saar) yurkod waraaha w
y?ullha yaa mal9uune, muu 9oob 9alooki tsubbi tooto ?

(Yesterday his sister insulted me. So he brought me
a stick and told me to beat her. So she ran away. And
he runs after her and tells her "You naughty girl, aren't
you ashamed to call your grandmother such names ?")

(kaanu) wa?t ySiir wa?t uttalivizyoon yutruku diransuton
w yu9du yutfarraju.

(Whenever it was television time, they would leave their
studies and sit and watch)

8. It has been said above that 0 + imperfect must be
preceded by another verb or other formā belonging to other
categories. However, it may be used initially in questions
seeking instructions, opinions, or approval, e.g.

?ub9atlon maktuub lumma ?uttuSol fiihon bu ttalifoon ?
(Shall I send them a letter or ring them up ?)

?uEbox lak ruzz ?
(Shall I cook you some rice ?)

waSSiilkon. 9ala \$wayyet Hatab ?
(Shall I order some logs for you ?)

These questions are distinguished from other questions
in which the verb appears in b + imperfect form in that while
the latter can appear with indicators of repetition as well
as of future time, the former can appear with indicators of
present and future time only but not with indicators of rep-
etition. Cf.

buddaxxen ? (9aadatan)
Do you smoke? (do you usually smoke?)

ddaxxen sigaara ?
(would you like to smoke a cigarette ?)

9. O + imperfect is also used in contexts of (i) blessing, prayer, wishing, cursing, swearing, and (ii) exhortation, coaxing, and supplication. In (i) it collocates with certain forms such as : ?alla, nšaalla. In (ii) the form 'maa' precedes O + imperfect in exhortation, and the forms 'balla', 'munšaan ?alla' munšaani appear in coaxing and supplication, e.g.

(i) ?alla yurDa 9aleek yaa ?ubni
(God bless you my son)

nšaalla tunjaHu
(May you succeed)

(?alla) yul9ano
(May God's curse be upon him)

(ii) leeš ?aa9ed saaket, maa tuHki?
(Why are you silent? why don't you talk?)

balla (munšaan ?alla) tGannilna ši Gunniyye ?adiime
(sing us some old song, for the sake of God)

munšaani tsaayer ?uxtak
(for my sake, be nice to your sister)

Subject of O + imperfect

It has been pointed out that the main difference between the infinitive and the O + imperfect is the fact that the former

is non-finite, whereas the former is finite, i.e., the infinitive cannot be linked with a nominal subject by agreement in its form; unlike O + imperfect which agrees with a nominal subject in (person), number and gender.

The subject may be expressly indicated, i.e., there may be a nominal which agrees with O + imperfect, or it may be evident from the context, its contrastive form in relation to other verbals clearing any ambiguity, e.g.

lamma yfuutu lbanaat maa ysallmá 9a luwlaad
(When the girls entered they did not greet the boys)

SallaHuton ul?ustaaze ?ablma tssafer
(The teacher corrected them before she left)

9am ylaa?u Su9uube Hatta yutkayyafu
(They find it difficult to adjust)

ǎaxiilek truuHi w tkamli šuGlek
(would you please go and finish your work)

O + imperfect and its subject can fill the position of an object after certain verbs (xalla (let), naSaH (advise), ?aal (tell), ?ajbar (compel), ?a9na9 (convince)). Examples are:

Sootak xalla bunti turtu9eb
(Your voice made my daughter frightened)

ZZuruuf ?ajbaret ?axi ysafer 9a rriyaaD
(Circumstances forced my brother to travel to Riyad)

lwaziir ?a9na9 9adnaan yu?bal ulwaZiife
(the minister persuaded Adnan to accept the post)

O + imperfect and its subject may be used also as objects of a phrase consisting of a verb and a preposition, e.g.

9tamadut 9ala ?axi yfayyu?ni bakkiir
(I counted on my brother to wake (waking) me up early)

?aSarru 9ala rffi?on yutGadda 9andon
(They insisted on their friend to have lunch (lunching) with them)

It should be pointed out that a personal pronoun cannot be substituted for the noun subject in this context, only a pronominal suffix colligating with the preposition being possible, e.g.

9tamadut 9alee yfayyu?ni bakkiir
(I counted on him waking me up early)

?aSarru 9alee yutGadda 9andon
(They insisted on him lunching with them)

This occurrence of O + imperfect is distributionally parallel to the infinitive in English. Cf.

They counted on the minsiter to intervene (intervening))
They counted on him intervening.

1. c) Contrastive implications

It has become clear from the distributional facts relevant to the infinitive in English and O + imperfect in Arabic that the two forms are sufficiently comparable for native speakers of Arabic to identify them in all cases.

This, naturally, constitutes teaching problems, since a complete identifying of the two forms will give rise to unacceptable forms in English.

In the first place, since 0 + imperfect corresponds both to the infinitive with 'to' and to the infinitive without 'to', confusion between the two is to be expected. Cf.

Haawalt fakkek xaTTak bass maa ?durt
 I tried to decipher your handwriting but I couldn't
 bu?der ?ufham xaTTak
 I can understand your handwriting.

Two kinds of mistakes are likely to occur in this context: one is the use of 'to' where it should not be used (with the auxiliaries); the other is the dropping of 'to' where it should be used. It should be mentioned, however, that mistakes of the first type are more common among speakers of Arabic. Attested mistakes of the two types are:

1. @ I must to go back early.
 @ He will to read all it (sic).
 @ But you must to wait many time (sic).
2. @ He hopes become all the people educated (sic)
 @ When he had returned to London he began write his impressions and poured it (sic) to books (sic)
 @ He hesitated tell her the news.

In the second place, a change of subject in a two-form Arabic verbal complex, as for example in 'ʔuxwaatak ʔuju nsaa9udon' (your sisters came so that we might help them), does not involve difference of basic pattern from the case in which the subject is common to both verb forms, which therefore exhibit the usual grammatical agreement, as in say, 'ʔuxwaatak ʔuju ysaa9duuna' (Your sisters came to help us). In English, however, comparable structures in which the main (first) verb is intransitive, exhibit a difference of structure in that an infinitive in one case corresponds to a subordinate clause in the other. Cf.

Your sisters came to help us
ʔuxwaatak ʔuju ysaa9duuna

Your sisters came so that we might help them
ʔuxwaatak ʔuju nsaa9udon

No such distinction applies in the case of transitive verbs.
Cf.

Your sisters want to help us
Your sisters want us to help them.

In view of the difference between Arabic and English, a transfer of Arabic to English results in the following attested mistakes:

- @ They must train students so as to become good soldiers.
- @ I convinced my parents to stay in London (context requires the writer to stay in London and not the parents)
- @ Do you prefer to meet you at three o'clock? (context requires: do you prefer that I should meet you ..)

In the third place, since O + imperfect in Arabic is variable in terms of person, number, and gender, whereas the English infinitive, being non-finite, is invariable, a transfer of the variability of O + imperfect to the English infinitive gives rise to the following attested mistakes:

- @ Nobody can writes like him.
- @ He will reads all it (sic)
- @ We must extend it to make it takes all the students.
- @ It must improve to gives us higher certificates.
- @ He had an iron hand made him (sic) controls the state.
- @ ... and all my wishes to see (sic) our university becomes among the best universities in the world.
- @ She made him knows what the life (sic) is.
- @ He tries to gives it.
- @ ... to let that dream comes to us.
- @ She must teaches her boy.

A fourth point of conflict between the infinitive in English and O + imperfect in Arabic is reflected in certain constructions in which both the infinitive and the O + imperfect function as adjuncts to a preceding noun which would be their object of the infinitive in associated transforms in which the infinitive appears as a finite verb. Cf.

He had plenty of money to spend
 They have so many problems to settle
 with
 9ando maSaari ktir yuSrufha
 9ando mašaakel ktir yHullha

It will be noticed that, unlike the infinitive in English, O + imperfect colligates with a pronominal suffix

referable to the preceding noun in this context. Transfer of this characteristic gives rise to mistakes of the following type:

- @ My brother has many friends to invite them.
- @ We have many lessons to prepare them.
- @ There are good programmes to see them in television (sic)

The same kind of conflict occurs where the infinitive is followed by a preposition, for in such cases in Arabic a pronominal suffix referable to the preceding noun colligates with the preposition. Cf.

He has no home to go to
There were many children for Susan to play with

with

maa ?ulo beet yruuH ?ulo
kaan fii wlaad ktiir tul9ab ma9hon

Attested mistakes reflecting this kind of conflict include the following:

- @ Damascus is a lovely city to live in it.
- @ The fruits are just to look at them.
- @ She did nothing to be ashamed of it.

Yet again the same conflict arises in contexts where the infinitive is an adjunct to a preceding adjective. Cf.

The temptation is hard to resist
Cigarettes are easy to obtain

with

l?uGraa? Sa9b nqaawmo
ssiigaaraat sahl nuštrihon

Cf. the following attested mistakes:

- @ English is easy to learn it.
- @ Dreams are not easy to explain them.
- @ Damascus Fair is nice to see it.

A final point of conflict between the infinitive in English and O + imperfect in Arabic results from the characteristic 'dropping' of the infinitive where instances of the same verb precedes, with retention in appropriate cases of the particle 'to'. In comparable contexts in Arabic, either no equivalent form appears in the absence of a counterpart of 'to' or a O + imperfect form may be repeated. Cf.

I did not want to stay the night but he begged me to
I can't do as much for them as I'd like to

with

maa Habbeet maDDi lleel laakunno trajjaani (maDDii)
maa bu?der saa9do ?adma buddi (saa9do)

2. -ing Forms

It is customary to find a distinction made in grammar books between two categories of -ing forms: the present participle, and the gerund. The distinction is made on syntactical grounds, since the two categories are identical in form, which made other grammarians reject the terms 'gerunds' and 'present participles' for a neutral term, the '-ing form.

The use of the uncommitted term -ing form is convenient, especially in cases where -ing forms appear in constructions in which it is difficult to assign them to either category. However, it seems more convenient to keep the distinction 'gerund' - 'present participle' from a contrastive point of view, since it will be found that forms classified as gerunds correspond in general to the so-called 'Al-Masdar' in Arabic, and forms classified as present participles will be found to correspond grosso modo to a sub-class of verbal forms in Arabic which may be called 'active participles'. Therefore, gerunds will be considered in relation to 'Al-Masdar' in Arabic; and both present and past participles in English will be considered in relation to active and passive participles in Arabic respectively.

2.a) Gerunds

Forms classified as gerunds are formed from the simple form of the verb by a suffixed -ing. They have syntactical characteristics which overlap with those of other word-classes. Thus they may be used in contexts occupied by nouns as well as in contexts occupied by verbs; hence the term 'verbal nouns' attributed to them.

The nominal syntactical properties of gerunds are exhibited

in contexts where they are used as subject, object of a verb or a preposition, and complement; and in contexts where they can associate with adjuncts appropriate to nouns; and themselves serving as noun-adjuncts. Examples are:

Scampering your work is hardly the way to get on.
 He began reading in a clear voice.
 They object to being treated like children.
 Complimenting is lying.
 His handling of the situation is masterly.
 Single-minded hankering after luxury.
 Retiring age.

Gerunds also exhibit syntactical properties of verbs. Thus they can appear with adjuncts characteristic of verbs, and, in the case of gerunds corresponding to transitive verbs, can be followed by noun objects or by pronouns in nominative absolute form. Examples are:

He began reading slowly and distinctly.
 His wife is busy collecting flowers.
 Seeing her is a pleasure.

Moreover, in the manner of infinitives, gerunds can be simple (seeing), perfective (having seen), passive (being seen), and perfective passive (having been seen).

2. b) Al-Masdar

Verbal nouns in Arabic are termed 'Al-Masdar' and are distributionally parallel to gerunds in English. Forms so classified in Arabic have various patterns exemplified by

Darb, šurb, 9amal, duxuul; the first illustrates the commonest pattern of the simple form of trilateral verbs. Patterns of derived forms of quadrilateral verbs are as follows:

<u>Verb</u> (perfect)	<u>Verbal Noun</u>
9allam	ta9liim
9aakas	mu9aakase
9taraf	?u9tiraaf
tkabbar	takabbor
tfaaham	tafaahom

Verbal nouns are deemed comparable to English gerunds on the grounds that they exhibit syntactical characteristics of both nouns and verbs. Their nominal character is revealed by the morphological and syntactical behaviour of forms so classified. And their verbal character is shown by their colligation with adjuncts characteristic of verbs.

Thus similar to nouns, verbal nouns colligate with pronominal suffixes, e.g.

maa 9ayyant yoom safar-i
(I haven't fixed the date of my departure)

ta9liim-o mušawweq
(His teaching is interesting)

Moreover, verbal nouns can colligate with the definite article, e.g.

ssafar bu lbaaxira ?aHla mun ussafar bu TTayyaara
(Sea travel is nicer than air travel)

tta?xiir bu lmawa9iid bidaayu?ni ktiiir
(I am very annoyed by the delay in appointments)

Furthermore, parallel to gerunds in English, verbal nouns can operate as subjects, objects, predicates, and objects of prepositions, e.g.

lubso w Hlaa?to byaaxdu wa?t ktiiir
(His dressing and shaving take a long time)

?ana bHubb ulqiraa?a bad uDDuhur
(I like reading in the afternoon)

lHayaat kifaaH
(life is struggle)

?aHaaluuhon 9a ttaqaa9od
(They pensioned them off)

It should be pointed out, however, that verbal nouns differ in general from nouns in that the majority of forms so classified do not show number distinction; and even in the rare cases when verbal nouns exhibit number variation, they can be singular or plural but very seldom dual. Cf.

<u>Singular</u>	<u>Dual</u>	<u>Plural</u>
tafaahom (mutual understanding)	-----	-----
ta9liim (teaching)	-----	-----
takabbor (haughtiness)	-----	-----
?ustuGlaal (exploiting)	-----	-----
?u9tiraaf (confessing)	-----	?u9tiraafaat

<u>Singular</u>	<u>Dual</u>	<u>Plural</u>
?unfijaar (explosion)	?unfijaa- reen	?unfijaaraat

The verbal character of verbal nouns is revealed by their colligation with adverbial forms which characteristically colligate with verbs, and in the case of verbal nouns corresponding to transitive verbs, it is also shown by the fact that they can be followed by noun objects or can associate with pronominal suffixes. Cf.

lHaki biTalaaga ktiir fa99aal
(Speaking fluently is very effective)

yaaser byuHki biTalaaga
(Yasser speaks fluently)

ta9liim ul?ungliizi Sa9b
(Teaching English is difficult)

?ana b9allem ?ungliizi
(I teach English)

šoofutha butsur ktiir
(Seeing her pleases much)

?ana bšuufha ktiir
(I see her often)

3.a) Participles

If the distinction made between gerunds and present participles is accepted for English, it would be convenient

to discuss -ing forms classified as present participles together with -en forms (past participles), since forms so classified are comparable with forms classifiable as active and passive participles in Arabic respectively.

The present participle is the verbal form ending in -ing found in the continuative form of verbs, e.g.

We are facing a change greater than any revolution in our history; we are beginning to abandon the experimental method.

The pressure was beginning to be uncomfortable, if not menacing.

The past passive is the verbal form found in the perfective and passive forms, e.g.

He has depicted his life in one of his poems.

This doctrine was gradually developed and it was not until the nineteenth century that its rules were strictly defined.

The participles are not only used in the perfective, continuative, and passive forms; they are also used in adjunct function as will be shown below.

a) The Present Participle

The present participle can be used after a verb in a sentence which can be considered a transform of two sentences, e.g.

They were busy valeting horses
(Cf. They were busy. They were valeting horses)

Too often he gulped his tea standing up
(Cf. He gulped his tea. He was standing up)

The child came shouting his name.
(Cf. The child came. The child was shouting his name.)

The present participle can be also used as a 'free adjunct' substitutable by an adverbial clause, e.g.

Living in seclusion on an island, the Englishman became introspective.
(Cf. Because he lived in seclusion on an island, the...)

Knowing this, the girl admired him all the more.
(Cf. When she knew this, the girl...)

Looking back on it, one can see that what really interested him was the idea of combat.
(Cf. If one looks back on it, one can see...)

When the participial phrase appears in final position, it is functionally equivalent to a co-ordinate clause, e.g.

Sometimes he slipped into the grotto, seeking advice on problems that had cropped up.
(Cf. Sometimes he slipped into the grotto, and sought...)

He is a fairly heavy drinker, never having less than five pints a day.
(Cf. He is a fairly heavy drinker, (and) he never has...)

b) Past Participles

Past participles occur in parallel functions, e.g.

Puzzled by his behaviour, the young men glanced behind them.

He could not go on, overwhelmed by a situation which would never have entered his head.
He was almost asleep, worn out by the strain.

The examples of free adjuncts given so far would have the subject of the main verb as their subject in what may be considered the kernel sentences of which they are transforms.
Cf.

He was almost asleep, worn out by the strain.
with
He was almost asleep. He was worn out with the strain.

In cases where the subject of the main verb could not be the subject of the participles, the latter occur with a subject of their own (cf. above), e.g.

The red car was upside down, its wheels still turning.
(Cf. The red car was upside down, and its wheels were still turning.)
There he sat down, dozing on the parched ground, only his sandalled feet protruding beyond the oasis of the great heat.
He said that, the point having been raised, the same mistake would not occur again.

A sub-class of verbs including feel, hear, see, set, start, catch, keep, leave, occur with an object and a participle, e.g.

Present Participles

He could feel the heart throbbing
(cf. he could feel that the heart was throbbing)
They undertook many journeys to watch the heavy guns being mounted.
These two things always set the world laughing.

Past Participles

Nothing would have surprised her than to hear this said of her.

The new estate was beginning to make itself felt. Janet watched duly to see the boy's expression duplicated on her husband's face. (cf. ... to see that the boy's expression was duplicated on her husband's face)

Participles also occur after nouns in a function comparable with that of a relative clause, or precede a noun in adjunct function, e.g.

The importance is not to be estimated by the numbers participating (cf. ... by the numbers who are participating)
There were clear signs of clear changes impending.
This was a reward due for services rendered.

He sprang at the officiating cardinal
(cf. He sprang at the cardinal who was officiating)
The laughing crowd.
Conclusions based on his observed conduct.

When an -ing form precedes a noun, features of stressing serve to distinguish between a gerund and a present participle.

Cf.

A dancing 'doll (doll that dances) (participle)
A 'dancing lesson (lesson in dancing) (gerund)

A running 'man (a man who runs) (participle)
A 'running competition (competition in running) (gerund)

Stress can be the only feature serving to distinguish between a participle and a gerund, as in,

A dancing 'girl (a girl who dances) (participle)
A 'dancing girl (a girl whose profession is dancing) (gerund)

3. b) Participles in Arabic

Forms classified as participles in Arabic are broadly comparable with present and past participles in English, the active participle corresponding to the present participle in English, and the passive participle corresponding to the past participle.

It is possible to distinguish two sub-classes of participle⁽¹⁾ in Arabic: active participles and passive participles. Participles are classified among verbals on the basis of certain shared characteristics.

Syntactically, they are substitutable with verbs: active participles with active verbs, and passive participles with passive verbs, e.g.

šaari (štara) beet jdiid
(He has bought a new house)

?eemta waa9ed (wa9adut) ?unmak ?
(When did you promise to meet your mother ?)

maHsuudiin 9ala beetna (nHasadna 9ala beetna)
(We are envied our house)

buddna tasjiil ma?buul (yun?ubel)
(We want an acceptable recording)

(1) The active participle of a trilateral verb is of the pattern CaaCec; the passive participle, of the pattern maCCuuC, e.g. katab (he wrote), kaateb (writing), maktuub (written); šureb (he drank), šaareb (drinking), mašruub (drunk). Participles of other verbs follow different patterns according to their CV structure. See T.F. Mitchell, op.cit.p.87 ff

Moreover, similar to verbs, active participles appear with pronominal suffixes or with the particle 'l' + a pronominal suffix, e.g.

?ana saam9ak (Cf. ?ana smu9tak)
(I hear you)

jaayiilon baDaaye9 jdiide (Cf. ?ujaalon baDaaye9 jdiide)
(They are expecting new goods)

On the other hand, both active and passive participles differ from verbs in that the affixes they appear with are shared with nominal and adjectival forms. Thus participles take the plural affix -iin and the feminine singular affixes -a and -e, e.g.

<u>Nouns</u>	<u>Adjectives</u>	<u>Act. Part.</u>	<u>Pas. Part.</u>
xayyaaTiin	šaaTriin	mxayyTiin	mxayyaTiin
xayyaaTa	šaaTra	mxayyTa	mxayyaTa
m9allmiin	mhazzabiin	daaxliin	mdaxxaliin
m9allme	mhazzabe	daaxle	mdaxxale

While passive participles share with nominals and active participles their colligability with the suffixes -iin, and -a, -e, they differ from active participles in that they do not colligate with verbal affixes, and, in contrast to both verbs and active participles, do not colligate with pronominal suffixes.

It has been said above that participles share with verbs and nouns certain characteristics; in this respect they correspond to participles in English. A main distinction, however, between Arabic participles and English participles is the fact that the former are variable in terms of gender and number; and because they occur in environments occupied by verbs in perfect or imperfect forms, they have more of the verbal character than their English counterparts.

Distribution of Participles

While participles in general colligate with indicators of past time (in notional terms: they refer to the state of having performed the action), the participles of certain verbs, notably verbs of motion, behave differently: they colligate with indicators of (a) contemporary duration or repetition, and (b) with indicators of past (definite or indefinite), and (c) with indicators of future time. Examples are:

(a) šuuf ljunuud kiif raakbiin ?uHuSne
(See how the soldiers are riding horses)

leeš maaši 9ala mahlak ?
(Why are you walking slowly ?)

TTalla9 9a TTayyaara yalli Taal9a mun ulGeem
(Look at the airplane coming out of the clouds)

In this context the majority of verbs appear in 9am + imperfect forms (see p.257), e.g.

šuuuf kif lwalad 9am yu19ab
 (See how the boy is playing)

leeš 9am tuHki bi Soot 9aali ?
 (Why are you speaking in a loud voice ?)

hay ?axuuki 9am yaakol laHaalo
 (There is your brother eating by himself)

(b) msafer ?aktar mun 9ašr marraat la baGdaad
 (He has been to Baghdad more than ten times)

maaš1 xams kilomuttraat Hatta wuSel la hoon
 (He has walked five kilometres to get here)

Taale9 bakkiir mun šuGlo lyoom
 (He has left his work early to-day)

The participles of the majority of verbs behave similarly
 in this context, e.g.

sam9aan fii bass maa ba9ref ?eemta
 (I've heard of him but I don't know when)

mneen šaari ha lugraafe ?
 (Where have you bought this tie from ?)

waa9udni yuštriili hdiyye ššahr uljaaye
 (He has promised to buy me a present next month)

(c) lmudeel yalli Taale9 ussune ljaaye ?aHsan
 (Next year's model is better)

?ana msafer bukra
 (I am leaving to-morrow)

miin ?aaxed ma9ak 9ala bluudaan ?
 (Who are you taking with you to Bloudan ?)

The majority of verbs appear in the imperfect form

preceded by 'b' or 'raH' in this context, e.g.

raH y9ammru mustašfa jdiid ussune ljaaye
(They will build a new hospital next year)

raH yutxarraĵ ba9d sunteen
(He will graduate in two years)

bukra bub9ato bu lbariid
(tomorrow I'll send it by post)

When associated with negative particles all participles can colligate with indicators of future time, e.g.

maali mutHarrek Hatta turDi 9aliyyi
(I am not moving until I have your blessings)

maali Haakiilo law yjunn
(I am not telling him even if he goes mad)

maali daafu9l6 wala frang
(I am not paying him a franc)

In sentences of the type 'la?eeto ?aakel kull uttuffaaHaat' (I found he had eaten all the apples), where a verb of a small sub-class (which includes: šaaf (he saw), sume9 (he heard), Hassab (he thought)) colligates with a pronominal suffix and is followed by a present participle agreeing with the pronominal suffix, the perfect form of the verb may be substituted for the present participle. Cf. 'la?eeto ?akal kull uttuffaaHaat'. In the case of verbs of motion, however, the active participle and the perfect form of the verb are not freely variant but rather contrastive. Thus 'la?eeto maaši bu ššaare9' corresponds to 'I found him walking in the street' in English. Whereas

'la?eeto muši bu ššaare9' corresponds to 'I found he had walked in the street'. Cf. also

šufto raale9 mun ulbeet
 (I saw him leaving the house)
 with
 la?eeto 9am yuktob ulmaktuub
 (I found him writing the letter)

where the use of the participle in the case of the verb of motion corresponds to that of 9am + imperfect form of the non-motive verb 'katab'.

There is yet another difference in the behaviour of motive and non-motive verbs when their participle forms are preceded by the auxiliary 'kaan'/'ykuun'. Cf. sentences 1 with 2, and 3 with 4 below,

1. lamma šufto kaan kaateb ulmaktuub
 (When I saw him he had (already) written the letter)
2. lamma šufto kaan maaši bu ššaare9
 (When I saw him he was walking in the street)
3. bukra mutul halla? butkuun baa9te kull ul9azaayen
 (This time to-morrow she will have sent all the invitations)
4. bukra mutul halla? butkuun raal9a mun uššugul
 (This time to-morrow she will be going out of work)

In sentence 3 the active participle 'baa9te' corresponds to the perfect form of a motive verb; and in sentence 4 the active participle 'raal9a' corresponds to the 9am+imperfect

form of a non-motive verb. Cf. sentences 3 and 4 with sentences 5 and 6 below,

5. bukra mutul halla? butkuun Tul9et mun uššugul
(this time to-morrow she will have left work)
6. bukra mutul halla? butkuun 9am tnaDDef ulbeet
(this time to-morrow she will be cleaning the house)

Parallel to the distribution of English participles Arabic participles can occur after verbs (or other participles) with which they agree in gender and number. Examples are:

yalli byu9du wara byu9du murtaaHiin
(Those sitting behind sit comfortably)

?axi 9aayeš mkayyef
(My brother is living a happy life)

Tullaabna 9am yudxulu 9a ljaam9a mkawmiin 9anha
fukra xayaaliyye w 9am yu'la9u muna maɔduumiin.
(Our students enter the university having formed romantic ideas about it and they leave it disillusioned)

In the following examples, agreement obtains between the participle and a preceding noun or a pronominal suffix:

la?eet Daww ulbeet šaa9el
(I found the light of the house burning)

lamma šaaфуuhon jaayiin harabu
(when they saw them coming they ran away)

rajja9on xaaybiin
(he sent them back disappointed)

Participles occur after nouns with which they agree in number and gender, definiteness or indefiniteness. This position is more characteristic of passive participles, e.g.

Active participles

DDaww uššaa9el maa bixalliini naam
(A burning light prevents me from sleeping)

maa fii ?aHla mun uTTuful unnaayom
(There is nothing more beautiful than a sleeping child)

saa?ye jaarye wala nahur ma?Tuu9
(A running stream is better than a dry river)

Passive participles

tjaawazet ussun ulma?buul
(She is past the accepted age)

Imizaat lmawjuude 9ando naadra
(The advantages existing with him are rare)

Imikrofoon ulmaksuur maa štaGal
(The broken microphone didn't work)

In the above examples participles can only follow the noun with which they agree. In this position they function as adjuncts of the preceding noun. The following examples include participles which may follow or precede the noun with which they agree only in number and gender, definiteness attaching only to the noun. In this case, they are predicates and the nouns are subjects, e.g.

nnaHur ma?Tuu9 (the river is dry)
DDaww šaa9el (the light is burning)
sunha ma?buul (her age is acceptable)

3. (c) Contrastive implications

While it is possible to discern a partially parallel distribution of forms classified as participles in English and Arabic from the description of these forms above, there remain other distributional differences between them which constitute points of conflict that cause teaching problems for speakers of Arabic.

The partial distributional similarities can be summarized as follows:

1. Participles in Arabic being substitutable for verbs in perfect or 9am + imperfect forms makes them comparable with English present and past participles when these appear with the auxiliaries 'have' and 'be' in the perfective and continuative forms. Cf.

The horse is running fast.
I have examined thirty papers so far.

with

luHSaan raaked bisur9a
mSalleH tlaatiin war?a lahalla?

2. Participles in both languages can follow verbs. Cf.

I saw them running

with

šufton raakdiin

3. In both languages participles can be adjuncts to nouns. Cf.

running water
 stolen goods
 with
 mayy jaarye
 baDaaye9 masruu?a

Divergence in the behaviour of participles in English and Arabic can be summarized as follows:

The main difference between the participles in the two languages relates to the fact that participles in Arabic can occur as predicates (since they occur in free variation with verbs in perfect or imperfect forms); whereas participles in English cannot function as predicates. Transfer of Arabic characteristics of participles gives rise to the following mistakes:

- ⓐ You imagining things.
- ⓑ Why you putting in your head that you will fail ?
- ⓒ This microphone broken.
- ⓓ Tell her when you invited.

which reflect Arabic

?unte mutwahhem
 leeš Haafet bi raasak ?unnak ran tus?of
 haada lmikrofoon maksuur
 ?ulla ?eemta ma9zuun

A characteristic of participles in English, in contexts where they are substitutable by adverb clauses, is unmatched in Arabic, and constitutes a teaching problem. Negative evidence of this difficulty is available: the fact that such constructions were not used at all in the examination scripts analysed. Instead, students invariably use adverb clauses, where an adverb phrase with a participle would be more appropriate, at least stylistically. Thus sentences like the following are hardly ever used by Syrian students:

Being poor, she could not afford to buy books.
She is quite a different woman now, deprived of her
wealth and beauty.

Instead, they always say or write,

Because she is poor, she could not afford to buy books.
She is quite a different woman now, after she was deprived
of her wealth and beauty.

A. Adverbs in English

(1)

Forms classifiable as adverbs do not belong exclusively to the verb phrase or the noun phrase. So varied and elusive are these forms that they seem to defy any satisfactory classification. In fact, in order to give a clear picture of these forms it will be necessary to classify them in various intersecting classifications on the basis of morphological and syntactical criteria.

The primary identifying characteristic of adverbs is their ability to fill certain positions, the chief of which is illustrated in the following sentence

The man told us his story ----

in which the blank can be filled by any of the following adverbs, each representing a sub-group into which adverbs may be divided on the basis of their form.

hopefully, eagerly, aloud, actor-wise, backwards, somehow, over, and here.

(1) In the discussion of adverbs I have drawn on three major works, H. E. Palmer, op. cit., pp.171 ff.; Francis, op.cit. pp.281 ff. ; and Strang, op. cit., pp.161 ff.

The position filled by these adverbs is sentence final following a noun object. It is a kind of common denominator for all the adverbs in question, as other environments are possible but only for certain sub-groups of adverbs.

Morphological Classification

According to their form, adverbs may be divided into eight sub-groups.

1. The first group comprises the largest and most clearly marked group. It includes adverbs formed by the addition of the derivational suffix '-ly' to derived adjectives, so that there are (with few exceptions related to certain adjectives which are formed by the addition of the adjective forming suffix '-ly' to nouns (homely, manly, etc.)) just about as many adverbs in this group as there are in the large class of derived adjectives. Examples of these adverbs are: healthily, traditionally, remarkably, visibly, hopefully, uselessly, etc...

2. Members of this group include adverbs formed by the suffix '-ly' from base adjectives. Examples are: eagerly, slowly, strangely, falsely, blackly, etc. Cf., however, goodly, deadly, lively, which are usually adjectives.

3. This group consists of those adverbs that are formed by adding the derivational prefix 'a-' to nouns, verbs, adjectives, and bound forms. Examples are: ahead, away, abroad;

adrift, astir, anew; akimbo, anon.

4. A rapidly increasing group of adverbs, especially in American English, are those consisting of the derivational suffix '-wise' added to nouns, e.g. lengthwise, publicity-wise, campaign-wise.

5. Members of this group consist of those adverbs formed by adding the derivational suffix '-ward(s)' to a limited group of nouns: backward(s), forward(s), homeward(s).

6. A small group of adverbs consists of those formed by combining the determiners some, any, every, and no with a closed class of forms, e.g. somewhere, anywhere, nowhere, everywhere.

7. Members of this group are homophonous with forms classifiable as prepositions, e.g. in, out, up, down, over, under, inside, around.

8. This group of adverbs includes a number of adverbs that have no common formal markers which may distinguish them in isolation. They are considered as adverbs when filling adverb positions in sentences where other word classes are clearly identified. Members of this group include: now, then, there, often, seldom, perhaps, still, even, always. Other members of this group can operate as nominals, e.g. yesterday,

downstairs, home, etc.

Grammatical function of adverbs

Part of the difficulty encountered in the description and classification of adverbs is the fact that they operate as adjuncts to various word-classes, as well as to sentences as a whole. Thus according to the form-class they modify adverbs ^{that} may be classified into the following not mutually exclusive groups:

a. Adverbs modifying verbs

These modify verbs and occur in pre- and post-verbal position. Members of this group include: quickly, well, fast, once, daily, (very) much. Examples are:

Am I walking too quickly ?
I once saw them.
He ran fast.

b. Adverbs modifying adjectives and adverbs

Adverbs of this group modify adjectives and adverbs. They usually precede the modified element (their head) (cf. however, 'It's very nice indeed'. Adverbs of this group include: very, extremely, too, nearly, hardly, enough. Examples are:

It's very good
you are walking too fast for me.
It isn't good enough.

c. Adverbs modifying nouns

(1)
Adverbs of this group modify nominals and can precede or follow their head. Members of this group include: only, really, quite, merely, etc. Examples are:

It's quite a picture.
The house upstairs.
It's only a man.

d. Adverbs used as subject-complements

These adverbs are used as complements after verb 'to be' and other verbs of incomplete predication. Members of this group include adverbs of place and the preposition-like adverbs: there, abroad, here, out, up, etc. Examples are:

He's abroad.
It's here.
He must be out.

Position of Adverbs

According to the position they generally occupy, adverbs may be classified into five classes:

- a. Adverbs in pre-subject position
- b. Adverbs in pre-verbal position
- c. Adverbs in post-verbal position
- d. Adverbs in pre-adjunct position
- e. Adverbs in miscellaneous positions.

(1) It should be emphasized that this is not a mutually exclusive classification, since members of this group can modify other word-classes. Cf. 'He only laughed', 'He really came'.

a. Adverbs in pre-subject position

Adverbs of this class are placed in sentence-initial position, and some of them are invariably used in this position. Here belong adverbs of time, which can be used both in pre-subject and in post-verbal positions. Cf.

I went there yesterday.
Yesterday, I went there.

Some adverbs like 'sometimes' can be used in pre-subject, pre-verbal, and even in sentence-final position. Cf.

Sometimes, I go there.
I sometimes go there.
I go there sometimes.

We cannot, however, have,

@ I go sometimes there.

b. Adverbs in pre-verbal position

Adverbs of this class precede all finites except the auxiliaries when these are stressed. When stressed, auxiliaries may follow the adverbs. Members of this class include: always, never, still, ever, nearly, hardly. Examples are:

I always go there.
I am always going there.
I've always gone there.
I can always go there.

Cf., however,

I always am there.
I always did say so.

c. Adverbs in post-verbal position

These are placed after the verb (finite or non-finite), immediately, if there is no object, but almost invariably after the direct and indirect objects. Members of this class include: well, badly, yesterday, etc. Examples are:

He speaks well.
He speaks English well.
He does all his work very badly.
I gave him some of them yesterday.

It is to be noted that when adverbs of time and place co-occur, the adverbs of time generally follow the adverbs of place, e.g.

I went there yesterday.
I saw him here last Sunday.

d. Adverbs in pre-adjunct position

Adverbs of this class generally stand before adjectives or other adverbs which they modify. These include: very, rather, too, exceedingly, etc. Examples are:

That's very good.
I am rather busy.
It looks too dirty.
You speak too quickly

He's doing very well.
It's exceedingly well done.

Cf., however, the position of 'enough', which follows the adjective or the adverb it modifies, in

It isn't good enough.
That's hardly large enough.
He doesn't speak fluently enough.

e. Adverbs of miscellaneous positions

Adverbs of this class can modify words belonging to any word-class and are found in many and diverse positions.

Members of this class include: perhaps, exactly, only.

Examples are:

Not I, but my brother perhaps saw it.
Perhaps I saw three people.
I perhaps saw three people.
I saw three people perhaps.
I saw perhaps three people.

'Only' is an interesting member of this class; it occupies diverse positions even when modifying the same element, intonation features serving to distinguish the element modified.

Cf. the following examples in which the tonic syllable has been underlined:

I only saw my friend yesterday (I didn't talk to him)
I only saw my friend yesterday (I didn't see yours)
I only saw my friend yesterday (I didn't see my brother)
I only saw my friend yesterday (not before)
I only saw my friend yesterday (nobody else saw him,

there is yet another kind of classification of adverbs. According to the particular group of question words with which they are correlated, adverbs have traditionally been classified into adverbs of manner, time, place, etc.

a. Adverbs of manner

Adverbs of manner may serve as answers to such questions as 'how did you do it?'. These adverbs are used to modify verbs and sentences, and are used in pre-subject, pre-verbal, and post-verbal positions. They include: slowly, steadily, quietly, suddenly, well, etc. Examples are:

He works slowly but steadily.
 He quietly went away.
 He doesn't speak English very well.

b. Adverbs of time

Adverbs of time can serve as answers to the question 'when?'. They modify the whole sentence or an element therein. Their position is pre-subject or post-verbal. Members of this group include: yesterday, then, to-morrow. Examples are:

I went yesterday.
 I saw what he meant then.
 I'll see you to-morrow.

c. Adverbs of place

Members of this group may serve to answer the questions

'where', 'whereabouts', etc. They generally modify the whole sentence or an element therein, and their position is generally post-verbal. These adverbs include: there, here, back, anywhere. Examples are:

I'm going there.
Put them back.
I haven't seen them anywhere.
Is it here ?

d. Adverbs of frequency

Adverbs of this group may serve as answers to questions like 'how often', 'how many times'. Their position in the sentence is generally pre-verbal, and many of them are frequently modified by adverbs of degree. Some members of this group are: always, seldom, often, hardly, ever, never. Examples are:

I always see him there.
He's very seldom there.
I can't see you very often.
I've hardly ever spoken to him.
They are never large enough.

Other possible groups of adverbs include adverbs of degree, adverbs of quantity, adverbs of precision, etc. These may serve as answers to questions like 'how fluently', 'how large', etc. Examples are:

It's very large.
They are rather good.
He doesn't work enough.
I particularly wanted to see you.

B. Adverbs in Arabic

Under the heading 'Adverb' it is possible to include a variety of elements with general characteristics, though variation in other characteristics will make it necessary to set up various sub-classes.

The first class of adverbs include forms that can be formally identified by the adverb-forming suffix '-an' which may be added to various word classes and to bound forms.

Examples are:

<u>Adjective stems</u>	<u>Noun stems</u>	<u>Bound stems</u>
raadiim-an (formerly)	ra?san (directly)	daa?iman (always)
rasmiyyan (officially)	?aHyaanan (sometimes)	?abadan (never)
šaxSiyyan (personally)	?asaasan (basically)	juddan (exceedingly)
Haaliyyan (currently)	Tab9an (naturally)	ta?riiban (nearly)
9amaliyyan (practically)	9aadatan (habitually)	tamaaman (exactly)

Adverbs of this class modify verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs, as well as whole sentences.

verb-modifying adverbs

Adverbs of this group modify verbs and are characterized by positional mobility in relation to the verb modified. Thus they can be pre-verbal, post-verbal, and can even occur between a verb and its object(s). Examples are:

ʔana fu9lan z9ult 9ala rfiiʔi
(I really felt sorry for my friend)

daayman bifayʔini SSubuH
(He always wakes me up in the morning)

ʔaHyaanan btutHammal ʔusbuu9
(Sometimes it takes a week)

The last three examples can have different word order.

Cf.

a. ʔana z9ult fu9lan 9ala rfiiʔi
bifayyiʔni daayman USSubuh
btutHammal ʔaHyaanan ʔusbuu9

b. ʔana z9ult 9ala rfiiʔi fu9lan
bifayyiʔni SSubuH daayman
btutHammal ʔusbuu9 ʔaHyaanan

Cf. also the following examples where the adverb can occur before, or after the object of the verb,

a. before the object:

bidallilu 9aadatan uSSabi
(They usually spoil the boy)

byuxtusru ʔaHyaanan ulʔaflaam
(They abridge the films sometimes)

?axadu ra?san ma9aaš mniH
(They immediately got a good salary)

b. after the object:

bidallilu SSabi 9aadatan
buxtuSru l?aflaam ?aHyaanan
?axadu ma9aaš mniH ra?san.

In all the above examples the adverbs can occur in pre-verbal position as well, cf.

9aadatan bidallilu SSabi
?aHyaanan byuxtuSru l?aflaam
ra?san ?axadu ma9aaš mniH

Noun-modifying adverbs

Nouns and noun-like elements (numerals, pronominal suffixes) can be modified by adverbs, the latter occurring either before or after the noun or numeral and only after the pronominal suffix. Examples are:

yalli la?eeto huwwe l9aks tamaaman
(What I saw is the exact opposite)

ttajribe hiyye muHaawale ?uula 9amaliyyan
(The experiment is practically a first attempt)

lbank ?ulo siqa fiik šaxSiyyan
(The bank has confidence in you personally)

Cf.

yalli la?eeto huwwe tamaaman l9aks
ttajribe hiyye 9amaliyyan muHaawale ?uula
but not

@ lbank ?ulo siqa \$axSiyyan fiik

Adjective-modifying adverbs

Adverbs modifying adjectives can precede or follow the adjective modified, the latter case being more frequent.

Examples are:

yalli ?addamet ulbarnaamej Habbaabe juddan
(The one who introduced the programme was very sweet)

saa9utha biSiir manZaro Hulu tamaaman
(It would look completely nice then)

la?eenaaha ?arxaS fu9lan bu ssuu?
(We found it really cheaper in the market)

Cf.

yalli ?addamet ulbarnaamej juddan Habbaabe
saa9utha biSiir manZaro tamaaman Hulu
la?eenaaha fu9lan ?arxaS

Adverb-modifying adverbs

Adverbs ending in the adverb-forming suffix '-an' can modify other forms classified as adverbs on syntactic and/or morphological criteria (see below). The position of the modifying adverb can be before or after the adverb modified, the latter case being more frequent. Examples are:

?uja 9adnaan ba9di mubaa\$aratan
(Adnan came immediately after me)

saakniin ma9na 9amaliyyan.
(They are living with us practically)

mbaareH shurna Tuul ulleel ta?riiban
(Yesterday we stayed up nearly all night)

Cf.

?uja 9adnaan mubaašaratan ba9di
saakniin 9amaliyyan ma9na
mbaareH shurna ta?riiban Tuul ulleel

Sentence-modifying adverbs

Adverbs modifying sentences are not easily distinguished from those modifying sentence-elements. They usually occur in sentence initial or sentence final position, mostly with nominal sentences. The most frequent members of this group of adverbs are those formed from numerals by the addition of the suffix '-an'. Examples are:

jjmaal ?aHsan la?unno ?awwalan rujleeha kbaar w taaniyan
?ulha Sabuŕ 9a l9aTaš
(Camels are better because firstly their feet are bigger and secondly because they can stand thirst)

Hatman kul waHde ?ulha miizaatha
(Certainly every one has its advantages)

Tab9an lwa?t ?ulo ?ahammiyyto bi ha lmas?ale
(Naturally time is an important element in this question)

The following forms are included among adverbials on positional criteria, since they occupy positions typically

occupied by adverbs.

It is possible to classify forms included among the adverbials into various intersecting classifications, the most interesting being that based on form.

Formal classification

On the basis of their form, adverbs may be divided into the following groups.

1. Those ending with the suffix '-an', e.g. 9aadatan, fawran, daa?iman (habitually, immediately, always).

2. Those which are similar in form to nouns and exhibit nounal characteristics (association with the definite article, colligation with the dual suffix '-een'). Cf.

9adnaan 9am yuštugel lyoom
(Adnan is working to-day)

jaayina Dyuuf ulleele
(We're expecting guests to-night)

bfi? bakkir uSSubuH
(I get up early in the morning)

with

lyoom SaaHi
(to-day is fine)

lleele baarde
(the night is cold)

SSubuH ?aHsan wa?t la ššugul
 (The morning is the best time for work)

3. Members of this group are characterized by the fact that they can occur alone or followed by any of the following elements: a noun, a pronominal suffix, a demonstrative pronoun, a relative piece, e.g.

lHadiis Saar taHt
 (The conversation took place downstairs)

lbusikleet taHt uddaraj
 (The bicycle is below the stairs)

doorkon ba9dna
 (Your turn is after us)

wa??fu ?uddaam hadool
 (Stand before these)

hadool foo? yalli šufnaahon
 (these^{are} above those we saw)

4. This group includes a number of adverbs which cannot be followed by any of the above elements. These include: hoon (here), hniik (there), ba9deen (later), ?able (previously), bakkiir (early), DaHwe (late). Examples are:

nuHna heek buddna nul9ab
 (We want to play thus)

lHadiis daar hoon
 (The conversation took place here)

mbaareH fu?t DaHwe
 (Yesterday I got up late)

5. Adverbs of this group occur in negative sentences only, and include only three members: bnoob (at all), ?abadan (never), lussa (still). The first two can occur only in negative sentences, but the third one can occur in affirmative sentences and can colligate with a pronominal suffix agreeing with the verb in person, number, and gender. Examples are:

lussa maa Tul9et unnataa?ej
(The results are not yet published)

maa \$ufto ?abadan
(I haven't seen him at all)

maa ba?a yunfa9 bnoob
(It is absolutely useless now)

6. members of this group are homophonous with forms classified as adjectives and are distinguished from them in being invariable (i.e., do not show concord with nouns in terms of number and gender). Members of this group include: mniiH (well) ?aliiil (a little), ktiir (much). Examples are:

waa?el byuktob mniiH
(Wael writes well)

?aHmad byaakol ktiir
(Ahmad eats much)

bizuuruuna ?aliiil
(They visit us sparingly)

Cf.

9ando Soot mniiH
(he has a good voice)

fii rjaal ktaar byukrahu ttadxiin
(There are many men who hate smoking)

HuSSuton ?aliile
(their share is small)

7. Members of this group are formed from abstract nouns by prefixing 'bi' to them. They occur post-verbally and are characteristic of educated speech. Examples are:

lmašaaheed ulnaasime piSawwruuha bibuTu?
(They picture crucial scenes in slow motion)

yaaser byinki bir'alaqa
(yaaser speaks fluently)

maysaa? btur?oS birašaaqa
(Maisa dances gracefully)

Adverbial groups

Under adverbial groups it is possible to distinguish a number of groups which consist of forms belonging to different word-classes and occupy positions typically occupied by adverbs.

a. Members of this group consist of a prepositional particle and a following noun or adverb. Members of this group include: bu lbeet (at home), 9a lmaw9ed (on time), Dunn ulqaanuun (within the law), etc. Examples are:

kaanet mariHa Dumn Huduud ul?adab
 (She was gay within the limits of politeness)

ka l9aade rawwalt baali 9alee
 (As usual I was patient with him)

haada maa byuštugel yulla 9ala keefo
 (This one doesn't work except as he likes)

b. It is possible to include in this group those forms which consist of the prepositional particle 'bi' + noun + adjective, nouns occurring in this group being one of a limited number of nouns, the most common being 'šakl' (shape), and 'rarii?a' (way). Examples are:

txallas munhon bi Tarii?a lbiqa
 (He got rid of them in a tactful way)

wazzu9on bi šakl mutanaaseb
 (Distribute them in a proportionate manner)

maysaa? btunki bi Soot 9aali
 (Maisa speaks in a loud voice)

It should be mentioned that ^{the} adverbial group of this category occur post-verbally in the majority of cases.

Position of adverbs in Arabic

While adverbs in English are characterized by a certain flexibility of position in relation to the element modified, adverbs in Arabic are almost absolutely mobile. This has

already been illustrated, in connection with adverbs ending in '-an'. In the following examples, each of the sub-classes will be given with the possible variations in their positions.

1. ?unte Galraan tamaanan
(You are completely wrong)
cf. ?unte tamaanan Galraan
tamaanan ?unte Galraan
2. \$tara badle jdiide mbaareH
(He bought a new suit yesterday)
cf. \$tara mbaareH badle jdiide
mbaareH \$tara badle jdiide
\$tara badle mbaareH jdiide (possible, though rare, order)
3. xalli waa?el yu?9od ?uddaam
(Let wael sit in the front) ^{et} —
cf. xalli waa?el ?uddaam yu?9od
?uddaam xalli waa?el yu?9od
4. fahnamto darso mniiH
(I explained his lesson well)
cf. fahnamto mniiH darso
mniiH fahnamto darso
5. lussa maa xallast \$uGli
(I haven't finished my work yet)
cf. maa xallast \$uGli lussa
maa xallast lussa \$uGli
6. Sootha nsama9 bisu9uube
(Her voice could hardly be heard)
cf. Sootha bisu9uube nsama9
bisu9uube nsama9 sootha
7. buddon yuTla9u 9a l?ustuun
(They want to go up to the roof)
cf. 9a l?ustuunH buddon yuTla9u
buddon 9a l?ustuunH yuTla9u
8. maysaa: btuHki bi Soot 9aali
(Maise speaks with a loud voice)
cf. maysaa: bi Soot 9aali btuHki
bi soot 9aali btuHki maysaa.

Parallel to the English classification of adverbs into adverbs of manner, time, place, etc., it is possible to classify Adverbs in Arabic into a parallel classification according to the particular group of question words with which they are correlated.

Adverbs of manner

Adverbs of manner may occur as answers to such questions as 'kiif' and can have the generic substitute 'heek' (thus, so). They modify verbs and sentences and are characterized by flexible mobility in the sentence. Members of this group include: miiH (well), bihudu? (quietly), faj?atan (suddenly). Examples are:

9allamon bi ?uxlaaS
(He taught them sincerely)

mšiina bisur9a
(We walked rapidly)

Adverbs of time

Adverbs of this group may occur as answers to questions like '?eenta' (when) and can modify the verb or the whole sentence. Members of this group include: nbaareH (yesterday), lyoom (to-day), bukra (to-morrow). Examples are:

?eenta ba9atta ?
(When did you send it ?)

ba9atta nbaareH
(I sent it yesterday)

Adverbs of place

These adverbs may occur as answers to questions like 'ween' (where). They include: hoon (here), hniik (there), barra (out), juwwa (in), etc. Examples are:

l?ujtimaa9 hoon
(The meeting is here)

ssayyaara waa?fe barra
(The car is waiting outside)

Adverbs of frequency

Adverbs of this group may occur as answers to questions like 'Kul ?addeš' (how often), 'kan marra' (how many times). Members of this group include: daa?iman (always), ?aliil (seldom), naadiran (rarely), ktiir (often). Examples are:

?aliil la ruuH 9a ssinema
(I seldom go to the pictures)

9adnaan daa?iman byuDHak
(Adnan is always laughing)

Other possible groups include adverbs of degree, adverbs of quantity, adverbs of precision, etc. These may serve as answers to questions like 'kiif' (how), '?addecš' (how much, how many', etc. They include: ktiir, ta?riiban, kifayye (much, nearly, enough). Examples are:

?addecš ?addo ?
(How large is it ?)

laa tba99ed ktiir
(Don't go too far)

C. Contrastive implications

From the description of English and Arabic adverbs it is clear that forms classified as adverbs in both languages show parallel behaviour in general, so that it is to be expected that speakers of Arabic should equate between English and Arabic adverbs and transfer the characteristics of Arabic adverbs to English adverbs.

The characteristic which is most likely to cause difficulty and to constitute a teaching problem is the absolute, versus the limited, mobility of adverbs in Arabic and English respectively. This has been demonstrated above and is further reinforced by adducing a number of attested mistakes which reflect a transfer of the free position of Arabic adverbs not only in relation to other elements in the sentence, but also in relation to other adverbs when they co-occur. A selection of these attested mistakes includes the following:

- @ I hardly could see him.
- @ I could reach hardly to my home (sic)
- @ He doesn't fluently speak English.
- @ ... and we will enjoy naturally this invention.
- @ I have daily one hour of time for this (sic)
- @ He was a tall man with a head erected always.
- @ He drank yesterday much.
- @ She hardly can describe the scene.

Appendix

Text A

A- ruhtu 9a llaterna maajika ?

Z- la?. hulwe ? wSiffiha.

A- ruht ?ana w 9adnaan. buddak 9adnaan yiHki lumma ?ana ?

Z- btHkin nuSS w 9adnaan byiHki nuSS

A- ?ana bira?yi ya9ni muu fann. fii fann bu ljuhud w uttarkiiz.

ya9ni 9amal ?aktarma huwwe fann. ya9ni lwaaHed biruuH ...

masalan ruht ?ana, xalaS ruht. muumumken 9iidha. ya9ni

šuft šii w kul waaHed laazem yšuuufha la?unn ?awwalan furqa

?ajnabiyye w maa 9anna mutla. tlut šaašaat byiTla9u bi nafs

ulwa?t. w fii šaaše ?iDaafiyye zGiire mutul lumraaye.

byumsukha waaHed biHakkem uSSuwar bi ?alb uššaaše. biTaalu9on

9aleeha la barra.bi nafs ulwa?t banaat baalee 9an yur?uSu

bišakl ?unnon byunsujmu ma9 uššaaše lxalfiyye. ya9ni tarkiiz.

fa Saar fii bi nafs ulwa?t ?ašyaa muxtulfe 9ala šaašaat muta-

9addide munsujme ma9 ba9Dha ?ila jaaneb ra?S 9a lmasraH. ?oo

?ana maa bu9tu?ed ?unno haada fann. bass ya9ni fann bu ttar-

kiiz. ya9ni mahaara.

Z- smaHiili šwayye yaa ?amal. ?unti naa maarasti ttadriis.

lizaalek Hakyek kaan ktiiir mšawwaš. maa ?durti tuwšfiilna

lwa9u9 lafiatta nu?der nutxayyal ulmawDuu9. fa 9adnaan, ?abul

kul šii, buddi ?ufnam šuu hiyye llaterna maajika. ba9deen

but9allqu ?iza kaan muu fanniyye ?aw fanniyye. wSufulna
yyaaha.

9- ssinema 9am tuT'lawwar ta'awwor la tmaawel tun?ol ulwaaqo9
bišakl ?unno txalliik tuš9or ?unnak bu ljaww. masalan ssinema
9umluuha sinamaskoob. ba9deen sinoraama. ba9deen 9unlu
ssinema ddaa?iriyye. ba9deen sinema ma9 rawaa?eH ...
fa lwaaqi9iyye ššadiide 9am tufqed ulfann ussinamaa?i
šaa9iriyyto. ha ššaa9iriyye hayy mutmarukze bu lmasraH.
9am yhaawlu yTa99mu ssinema bu lmasraH Hatta ta9Ti ssinema
šee? mun uššaa9iriyye. haada huwwe lhadaf ulfanni bu l?asaas.
w ullaatern maajika yalli šufnaaha 9amaliyyan hiyye 9arD
la t'farii?a ?aktarm hiyye 9arD la l9ama1 ulfanni. ya9ni buddon
y?uulu ?unno nuHna heek buđna nsæwl.

Z- Tayyeb šuu hiyye llaatern maajika ?

9- mu?allafe mun šaaše sinanaa?iyye w majmuu9a mun ulnumassliin.
?aw bu l?aHra šaaše kbiire bikabbuuha w bizađruuha, ?ila
jaaneb šaašaat sinamaa?iyye ?iDaafiyye. ya9ni šaašaat sina-
maa?iyye w majmuu9a mun ulmunassliin.

Z- Tayyeb šuu hayye ššaašaat byu9ruDu 9aleeha fulum ?

9- ?aHyaanan 9ala ššaaše narsna munšuuuf manZar Tabii9i mutul
jabal ?ilaa ?aaxirihi, btuTla9 kamira taanye bta9Tiik Suuret
fulum la raa?Set baalee 9am tur?oS foo? lumruuj. 9aaref kiif ?
raa?Set baalee 9am tur?oS waHdha. 9am tuji šSuura foo? ulmarj.

Z- lmarj 9ibaara 9an šaaše sinamaa?iyye w ulmarj ?uddaamo ?

9- la? la?. l?aalteen... lkamurteen ?aalteen 9arD 9an
 yuštuglu bi wa?t waaHed. waHde btu9roD jbaal w marj
 w manaaZer Tabii9iyye w ul?aale ttaanye 9am tu9roD
 raa?Set baalee foo?ha. ya9ni Tarii?a jdiido bta9Ti
 ?iiHaa? jdiid. masalan ba9Tiik Suura taanye. raa?Saat
 baalee, Hawaali xamsiin raa?Sa. bu ssinema šaaše kbiire
 mutul sinemaskoob. bi nafs ulwa?t byuTla9u 9a lmasraH
 tlaat arba9 raa?Saat. šuu biSiir ? 9am yuru?Su ra?Sa
 waHde w 9ala laHun waaHed. šuu biSiir ? mutul ka?unnak
 ?unte 9am tDiif yalli 9am yuru?Su. ?aHyaanan 9am yHaawlu
 yurubTu been ul9amal ulmasraHi w ul9amal ussinamaa?i. ya9ni
 biSiir Hadiis ?aw Hiwaar ?aw Harake masalan. Haraket
 waaHed 9am yšudd Habul. munlaa?i Taraf ulHabul 9am
 yunšadd 9a lmasraH w uTTaraf uttaahi 9am yunšadd mun uššaaše.
 9rufut kiif ?

Z- ?eewa.

9- bass ?ahamm šii ?unno lqaDiyye qaDiyyet tawqiit w nahaara.
 bu lfu9ul mnuš9or ?unno jamaa9a 9aamliin juhud 9ajiib.
 bass yaa tara ween byiSalu w šuu natiije, maa mna9ref.
 ha ššii maa Saar lo zamaan. haada ?awwalma qidden bi ma9raD
 bruksel.

A- laaken yalli 9am t?addem ulbarnaamej mut9allne 9arabi.

9- lHa?ii?a maa bta9ref 9arabi. kaatbiin ljumal bi Hruuf
 laatiiniyye w hiyye Haafuztha baSum. maa ma9ha war?a.
 ya9ni ktiir Zariife.

- A- ?aHyaanan uSSoot byuTla9 tasjiil w ?aHyaanan byuTla9
 9aazfiin 9a lmasraH. w ?aHyaanan byujtum9u ttneen sawa.
 butlaa?i 9aazef ulkamanja 9am yu9zef barra w ul?orquestra
 9am tu9zef juwwa.
- Z- kul yoom 9am yuštugel haada ?
- A- ?ee. kul yoom Hafulteen. tmaane ?ulla 9ašra w 9ašra
 w nuSS. bta9ref ?unte ?unno llaaterna maajika ma9naata
 lfaanuus ussuHri ?
- Z- ?ee ba9ref. b?addeš ulbileet ?
- A- Haflet ussaa9a tmaane ?arba9 leeraat uddaraje l?uula.
 9- fii mumtaaze bi sutt leeraat.
- A- l?uula ?afDal la?unno btaaxod ulmanžar kaamel.
- 9- bass wara ?aHsan. ?aaxer Saff ?aHsan šii.
- A- la? bu9tibaar 9a lmasraH... bu9tibaar fii masraH w sinema.

Text B

Z- 9ala Haki raaHet ulbaal, maa ba9ref ?iza Hakeetullak 9ala ?uSSet waja9 mu9utti. bta9ref ?unno mun ?abulma saafer w mu9utti 9am tuja9ni. xaaSSatan hniik wuj9utni ktiir w maa kaan yurken ulwaja9. ruHt 9and uTTabiib w Hakeetullo ?uSSti. ba9dma faHaSni ?alli ?unte maa fiik ši. maa fii 9andak ši. mas?altak ?uTTiraab waZiifi. fa laazem trayyeH baalak w ba9deen ?aklak tnaZZmo ktiir bišakl ?unno taakol ši xams wajbaat bu nnhaar.

A- hayy ?iza lwaaHed byi?der yamulha bikuun mun ?aHsanma yakuun.

Z- w bu SSudfe kaan ramaDaan ba9dha mubaašaratan. maa raddeet 9alee. Sumt. ?ult la Haali bjarreb. ?iza maa t?aalamt bkammel uSSyaam w ?iza t?aalamt buTTar. walla muši lHaal. maa nza9ajut. bu l9aks tHassant šwayye bu SSyaam. ?ana Hallalta ba9deen laHaali. 9ada 9an ?unno lmu9de 9am tkuun faaDye lwaaHed biSiir 9ando huduu? nafsi. fa ha lhuduu? raaHa la l?a9Saab w raaHa la lmu9de. lHaaSel ba9deen lamma xalaS ramaDaan raddet wuj9utni. Dalleet bu lwaja9 la yoom saafart. mun yoomma HaTTeet rujli bu lbaaxira maa 9utt ša9art bi juns ulwaja9. w Surt ?aakol ?aškaal ?alwaan w maa 9utt xaaf mun ?akl lumxallalaat w baTTalt šurb ulHaliib ba9dma Tule9 diini munno. w Surt HuTT raasi ruuH ra?san naayem.

A- haada huwwe. rtaaH baalak. 9ruft ?unno ha lfatra fatret

raaHa ...

Z- ?jiit la hoon kamaan maa wuj9utni. ya9ni halla? mu9Zam
 ul?aHyaan ?aliil la tuja9ni. w ba9deen fii šii taani.
 Surt naam uDDuhur. HuTT raasi naam. ya9ni ?ujutni
 fatret ha ššahr rtuHt fiiha tamaaman. laaken mun jdiid
 bdiit ?uHsob Hsaab ussafar. ya9ni Saayer mudde bDallni
 Haawel naam laaken maa bu?der. w ba9deen nšaGalt mun
 jdiid bi šaGle taanye... fa lmas?ale mas?ale ?ulha
 ?ahammiyye kbiire. raaHt ulbaal ktiir ?ulha ?ahammiyye.
 ya9ni ?ana mun ?aktar mun 9ašr sniin maa Saar ma9i fatret
 ?usturxaa? mutul ha ssabu9 tiyyaam yalli ?aDDeethon 9a
 lbaaxira.

Text C

B- sa?altulli 9an šuruuT ulqubuul bu lfar9 ul9ulmi ?

S- nsiiT. ?ultilli ma9o bakaloorya 9ulmi ?

B- ?ee. bZunn byusmaHuulo yudxol kul ulfuruu9.

S- ?ana haada yalli ba9urfo. fii ktiiriin ma9hon bakaloorya 9ulmi 9am yutsajjalu bi kulliiyyet ul?aadaab. hadool bikuunu mun yalli maa n?abalu bi kulliiyyet uTTubb ?aw kulliiyyet ul9ulum.

B- ?iza ma9hon bakaloorya 9ulmi leeš maa byusmaHuulon ya9mulu Tubb ?

S- maa byu?duru yaaxdu lkul la?unno 9andon ?amkine muHaddade. lizaalek byuTTarru yaaxdu masalan 9ala Hasab tađarroj ul9alamaat ?aw byuTlubu nusbe mu9ayyane bi 9alamaat ulba- kaloorya.

B- Tayyeb šuu ra?yak ndaxxlo ljaam9a hoon lumma nub9ato ra?san la ?orooppa ?

S- maa btufre? bi ha lmarHale .

B- bass ?anu l?afDal ?

S- ?iza fii miin yuSref 9alee l?aHsan yruuH la ?orooppa.

B- ween butfaDDel ?

S- 9ala Hasab...šuu buddo yudros ?

B- fukro yudros ?uqtiSaad siyaasi.

S- yruuH la ?ungeltra. fii bi jaami9et london madrasede mašhuura bi ha nnoo9 mun uddiraasaat. bass laazem ykuun mniiH bu l?ungliizi.

Text D

H- ?usaama, ma9ak kamira hoon ?

?- šuu buddek bu lkamira ?

H- buddna nSawwer Tarafa bi 9iid miilaado.

?- bdawwer 9aleeha.

H- ya9ni ?iza buddak tjiibha jiibha ssabut.

?- bass ?ana yalli buqturHo 9aleekon ?unno tuštruuha.

H- Tayyeb šuu ra?yak tbii9na yyaaha bu tta?siit ?

?- bu tta?siit. maa fii maane9. bu ššahr xamsiin leera.

?awwal daf9a miit leera w ulbaa?i xamsiin leera bu ššahur.

B- laa truddi 9alee. haada ?ubni biHubb yumzaH.

H- buddna nuštiriha. ?ulo 9am ydallel 9aleeha tlut sniin.

Imuhumm ?addeš Ha??ha ?

?- xamsiit leera.

H- ?ee ruuH. jjdiide Ha??ha xamsiit leera.

?- ?ee hayy jdiide kamaan. raH bii9ek kamira bi ta?siit

Tawiil ul?amad. btub?i sunteen Hatta tsaddidi Ha??ha.

H- maa buddna. mnušturi waHde mun luma9raD urruusi Ha??ha

?arb9iin leera.

?- maa byuⁿfa9u lkamiraat urruusiyyaat. ?awaam byuntuz9u.

xSuuSan yalli Ha??hon ?arb9iin leera. kaan 9andi waHde

munhon w untaz9et.

A- laa walla Tule9 ma9i fiiha Suwar ktiir ktiir waadHa.

halla? buddna nust9iir maa buddna nušturi. but9iirna

yyaaha lumma la?.

Text E

Z- mbaareH šufna fulum mniiH bi sinema zzahra.

N- w nuHna šufnaa mbaareH. wSulna Hawaali 9ašra w xamse.
ya9ni kaan lussa halla? badyaan lfulum.

Z- bi ha lfulum 9am y?arr?u 9a rruus w ul?ameerkaan fii
tazaHumhon 9ala musaa9adet udduwal uzzGiire.

G- ya9ni xarj nšuufo ?

Z- ?ee byunšaaf. ?awwal mašhad bikuun bu l?umam ulmuttaHide.
bikuunu 9am ySawwtu 9ala qaDiyeye w butkuun ulmas?ale
mwa??afe 9ala Soot waaHed w bikuun fii manduub dawle
zGiire lussa maa Sawwat. lamma byuji dooro byumtune9
9an uttaSwiit. lHaaSel byustaxburu 9anno rruus w ul?ameer-
kaan munšaan yuksabu Sooto w yxalluu ySawwet ma9hon. ya9ni
l?ameerkaan buddon yxalluu ySawwet ma9hon w urruus buddon
yuksabu Sooto. biSiir ul?ameerkaan buddon ya9Tu dawulto
?amuH w mudri šuu w urruus buddon yub9atuu furqet baalee
w ya9Tuuhon ?asliHa w Sawariix. wašinton btuttuSel
bussafaara taba9ha w bikuun ussantraliist huwwe waziir
lxaarijiyye taba9 ha lbalad. lamma bya9ref ?unno wašinton
buddha tuttuSel bu ssafaara taba9ha biruuH byuttuSel
bu ssafaara rruusiyye w bi?ullon jaaye muxaabara mun
wašinton la ssafaara l?ameerkiyye. ?addeš btudfa9u
la sammu9kon yaaha ? byu?9od byutšaaraT ma9hon. ba9deen

btuji muxaabara mun moosko la ssafaara rruusiyye. biruuH
 byuttuSel bi ssafaara l?ameerkiyye w bifaawuDon ?addees...
 ?addees byudfa9uulo ?iza samma9on lmuxaabara. ya9ni lHaaSel
 fulum biDaHHek tamaaman.

G- laazem nšuufo ?iza heek.

Z- ba9deen bunt ussafiir ul?amriiki biHubbha ?ubn ussafiir
 urruusi. w hadaak ussafiir urruusi bikuun mlaaHeZ ?unno
 ?ubno tGayyaret ?aHwaalo la?unno maa 9am yaakol mniiH.
 byutbaaHas ma9 ?unmo bu lmawDuu9 but?ullo yumken ?ubnak
 buddo yutjawwaz. biruuH byub9at bijiblo waHde mun ruusya.
 w hadiik bunt ussafiir ul?amriiki bikuun waaHed ?ameerkaani
 xaaTubha w byiji la 9andha munšaan yutjawwazha bilaa?iiba
 Gar?aane bi Hubb ?ubn ussafiir urruusi. nnatiije bunt ussafiir
 ul?ameerkaani btutjawwaz ?ubn ussafiir urruusi w ulbunt urruu-
 siyye yalli ba9atu jaabuuha Hatta yjawwzuuha la ?ubunhon
 butHubb l?ameerkaani yalli bikuun xaaTeb bunt ussafiir ul?am-
 riiki w byutjawwazu ba9Don.

Text F

- Z- smaHuulna nuntu?el la mawDuu9 uljaam9a. bihummi ktiir nuHki bi ha lmawDuu9. Hkuuli 9an uddiraase w 9an ul?umti-Haanaat w uljaww uljaami9i.
- H- ?unte bta9ref uljaami9aat... ya9ni ?unte bta9ref jaamu9na. šuu ra?yak kaan bu ljaww yalli kunt 9aayes fii ?
- Z- walla bu nnusbe ?ulna... nuHna ljaww uljaami9i kawwanna-a binafsna w nuHna kunna lmas?uuliin 9an ?iijaado w maa ktiir kunna nšuuuf ha l?ašyaa? yalli 9am tuHku 9anha. Sadaf nwajad jamaa9a mutfaahmiin w ta?riiban 9andon nafs ulmafaa-hiim w ul?afkaar. lizaalek kaan uljaww 9ala ?ayyaamna mun ?aHsanma yumken. maa ba9ref ?iza Saayer halla? ?ašyaa? jdiide la?unni maali 9ala Sila...
- H- Tayyeb šuu ra?yak bu TTullaab w uTTaalbaat yalli 9allamton sune ?uula ?
- Z- Zraaf tamaaman. ya9ni maa kaan ?uli ?ay ?u9tiraad ?aw ?ay ?untiqaad.
- H- ?amma ha ssune ?ana maa šuft Sadiqa ?uli ?udret tkawwen grup Zariif. Tuul ussune kunna nudxol 9a SSaff nu?9od Tullaab bi ?urne w Taalbaat bi ?urne.
- Z- šii 9ajiiib.
- H- Hatta ya9ni lamma yfuutu TTaalbaat maa ysallmu 9a TTullaab w hunne TTullaab nafs uššii.

Z- Tayyeb Hkuulna šwayye 9a ddiraase.

N- ya9ni ddiraase šuu butHubbha. Tuul wa?tak btuHki fiiha.

H- Tuul wa?tna ?uDraabaat. ljaam9a fatHet 9ibaara 9an šahr w nuSS yaa šahreen. lizaalek raH ya9mlu dawra ?ustusnaa?iyye Hatta ya9Tu TTullaab furSa taanye.

N- w uddruus kaanet mašye...

Z- bass ?unti maalek mu?ahhale tuHki Hawl ha lmawDuu9 la?unnek maa kunti tuHDari muHaaDaraat. ?amma hayfaa? kaanet mdaawme Tuul ulwa?ut. Hkiilna ba?a yaa hayfaa? kiif kaanet uddiraase ssune ?

H- kaan 9anna ?arba9 mawaad bu tturm ul?awwal. tunteen la sune ?uula w tunteen la sune taanye. ba9deen maa kaan fii dawaam Tawiil. ya9ni kaanet fatra ?aSiire w ulbarnaamej nafso. ya9ni maa ?all 9an ussune lmaadye. ba?a kaanet ussune kulla 9ibaara 9an fatret diraase la lfaHuS. w ul?asaatze l?ameerkaan maa kaanu ssune ktiir nuxbe. maa ba9ref kiif. mudri šawwašuton ul?aHwaal ussiyaasiyye... mudri šuu. ba9deen kaan 9anna ?ustaazet ul?adab ul9aalami šii tuHfe. bu nnuSS ul?awwal mun ussune kaanet 9am ta9Tiina ?adab 9aalami w šu9ur. bu nnusbe la ššu9ur Dallet tuštuGel bi biiwulf mudde Tawiile ma9 ?unno muu mun barnaamujna. w ba9deen mun Dumn uššu9ur 9aTutna ?evrimaan 9ala ?asaas ?unno haada šu9ur diini. bu tturm uttaani Saar ?ustaaz ulluGa ya9Tiina šu9ur 9awaaDha.

Text G

G- feen ulmadaam ?

S- jaaye 9ala buna ssaa9a sab9a w rubu9 sab9a w tult.

Z- ?ana kulma bkuun murtubeT bi maw9ed ma9 sayyidaat ba9Ti
nafsi wa?t ?uHtiyaaT. ?uHtulla tuji la hoon ussaa9a
sab9a 9ala ?asaas ?unnha maa btuji 9a lwa?t. ba?a ha
Imarra xayyabet Zanni w ?ujet 9a lwa?t.

G- ya9ni xayyabet Zannak ? ?unno ?iza ZabTet lmaw9ed bikuun
xayyabet Zannak ?

Z- Hkiilo šuu Saar ma9na hadaak ulyoom wa?t buddna nruuH
9ala bluudaan.

A- buddna nruuH 9ala bluudaan. waa9ed uljamaa9a ssaa9a sutte.
bi?ulli ta9i ?aabliini hoon ussaa9a xamse w nuSS. ?ana
kunt 9and lukwaffoor. sa?alto byu?der yxalluSni xamse
w nuSS w ?aal. ?ee. ?aam maa. Taala9ni la ssutte ?ulla
9ašra. ruHt. ba9deen-9a lbeet lbusut w sutte w xamse
kunt 9ando. ktiir 9ala sutt tut?axxar xams da?aaye? ?aw
9ašr da?aaye? ?aw Hatta rubu9 saa9a ?

G- ?aw nuSS saa9a. muu ktiir matama kaanet 9and ulHallaa?.

Z- mujarrad su?aalha ?unno ktiir 9ala sutt tut?axxar xams
da?aaye? ?aw 9ašr da?aaye? ma9naato ?unno lmafruuD bu
ssutt tut?axxar. ya9ni haadi lqaa9ide. ba9deen hiyye
9tabret. Haalha mut?axxra 9ašr da?aaye? bass ulHa?ii?a
hiyye mut?axxra ?arb9iin da?ii?a la?unno lwa9d xamse

Text. H

- G- raH tsafer bu TTayyaara lumma bu lbaaxira ?
- Z- ?ana bHubb ussafar bu lbaaxira bass buddi Haawel ?urja9
bu TTayyaara munsaan ulwa?t.
- G- w ?iza rju9ut bu TTayyaara maa butfakker ?unnak turja9
laHaalak ?aHsanma truuHu sawa bi Tayyaara waHde. btuSal
?unte w butfattede 9ala beet ykuun mnaaseb biduun DaGT.
- Z- maa xaTret bi baali ha lfukra. 9ala kul Haal raH ?uktob
la SaaHeb ulbeet yalli kunt saaken 9ando munsaan ?us?alo
?iza beeto lussa faaDi. fa ?iza kaan ulbeet faaDi munruuH
sawa. ?amma ?iza maalo faaDi mutulma 9am t?uul lmanTeq
?unno ruuH laHaali w laa?i beet w ba9deen byulHa?uuni.
- G - la?unno ?iza butruuH w ma9ak 9aa?ultak majbuur taaxod
?awwal beet butlaa?i mahma kaanet ?ujurto w mahma kaanet
muwaaSafaato.
- Z- ?awwal marra ruHt laHaali w uttafa?t. ma9 Saahubt ulbeet
yalli kunt naazel 9aaha ?unno jiih ul9aa?ile w Tab9an
raf9et ul?ujra. w 9ala ha l?asaas ba9att jubuthon.
ba9dma ?uju bi ?usbuu9een Daajet SaaHubt ulbeet mun luwlaad.
- G- Tul9et mun yalli maa byutHammalu luwlaad.
- Z- ?aalutli laazem tfattede 9ala beet taani. ballast fattee
w lamma t?axxart swayy Saaret t9aajuzna. lizaalek njabart
?usta?jer beet bi su9ur Gaali la?unno maa 9udna nu?der
nutHammal m9aajaztha.

w nuSS w hiyye ?ujet sutte w 9aśra.

A- šuu kunt buddak ta9mel fiyyi mun ulxamse w nuSS la ssutte
w ?unte waa9ed unnaas sutte.

Z- ?ana 9aamel Hsaabi Hatta maa nuxtujel ma9 ul9aalam w nuji
mut?axxiin.

A- basiifa. w Sadaf ?unno ljamaa9a yalli waa9diinhon ?uju
bakkiir šwayye.

Z- la? ?uju 9a lwa?t tamaaman.

G- šuufu ttwaaleet 9and ussayide mas?ale Hayawiyye. lizaalek
mahma Sarfet wa?t muu ktiir.

A- w huwwe bya9ref ?unni bTawwel bi kul šii ?ulla bu ttwaaleet.
fa ?iza t?axxart bkuun multhiyye bi luwlaad.

Z- ?ana maa bufham. ?ana ba9ref ?unno lmaw9ed laazem lwaaHed
yamel Hsaabo. ya9ni šaGlet utta?xiir bu lmawa9iid ktiir
ktiir btuz9ujni.

Translation

Text A

A- Have you seen the Laterna Magica ?

Z- No. Nice ? Describe it.

A- I have seen it with Adnan. Do you want Adnan to describe it or me ?

Z- You talk half the time and Adnan the other half.

A- In my opinion it is not a form of art. The artistic side lies in the effort and synchronization. It is effort more than art. In other words you see it... For instance I saw it, and that's that. I will never see it again. I saw something and everybody must see it because in the first place it is a foreign group and we have no comparable thing. Three scenes are shown simultaneously. There's an additional small screen like a mirror. Somebody tries to project the pictures inside the screen. He takes them out. At the same time ballet dancers are dancing. This is synchronized with the rear screen. In other words it's a question of synchronization. Thus we have simultaneously things on several things in collective harmony, in addition to dancing on the stage. Well, I don't think this is art. It is however artistic as far as synchronization is concerned. In other words it is (a display of)skill.

Z- Allow me (to interrupt), Amal. You have not had any teaching experience. Therefore your description was very confusing. You haven't been able to describe the situation so that we

can visualize the thing. Now, Adnan, first of all I want to know what the Laterna Magica is. Later on you can comment whether it is artistic or not. Describe it for us.

9- Motion pictures are developing in such a way as to try to convey reality and make you feel involved in the situation. Hence the cinemascope pictures, the cinorama, the circular cinema, the pictures with accompanying scents... Extreme realism has robbed the cinematographic art of its poetic aspect. This poetic aspect is centered round the theatre. They are trying to engraft the cinema on to the theatre in order to give the cinema a poetic flavour. This is the artistic aim basically. And the Laterna Magica which we have seen is virtually a display of the method more than the artistic work itself. In other words all they are trying to say is that this is what we intend to do.

Z- But what is the Laterna Magica ?

9- It consists of a screen and a group of actors and dancers. Or rather (it consists of) a big screen that can become bigger or smaller, in addition to cinema screens. In other words cinema screens as well as a group of actors and dancers.

Z- Well is it a screen on which a film is projected ?

9- Sometimes on the same screen we see a natural scene like a mountain, etc. Then another camera projects the picture of a ballet dancer over meadows. You see ? Thus the picture converges with the meadow.

Z- Is the meadow a screen and the dancer before it ?

9- No, no. The two machines, the two cameras are projectors working simultaneously. One projects (the picture of) a mountain and a meadow and natural scenery and the other one projects (the picture of) a ballet dancer on the first picture. In other words it's a new method which creates a new impression. For example let me give you another picture. Ballet dancers, about fifty of them. The cinema screen is a big cinemascope one. At the same time, three or four dancers appear on the stage. What happens is that they all dance one and the same dance to the same tune. It is as if you yourself had added those who are dancing. Sometimes they try to combine the cinema and the theatre. In other words there occurs a conversation or a dialogue or, say, a movement. The movement of a person pulling a rope. We find one end of the rope being pulled on the stage and the other end being pulled from inside the screen. You see ?

2- Yes.

9- But the most important thing is that it is a matter of timing and skill. In fact, we feel they have taken a lot of trouble. However, one wonders where they are going to get and what results they can achieve. This has not been going on for long. It was first presented at Brussels Fair.

A- But the mistress of ceremony knows Arabic.

9- She doesn't know Arabic in fact. The sentences must have been written in Roman letters and she must have learnt them

by heart. She carries no paper. She is very nice.

A- Sometimes the music is recorded and sometimes musicians appear on the stage. And sometimes we have both. Thus you find the violinist playing outside and the orchestra playing inside.

Z- Are there daily performances ?

A- Yes, two performances every day. At ten to eight and at half past ten. Do you know that the *Laterna Magica* means the magic lamp.

Z- Yes, I know. How much does the ticket cost ?

A- The eight o'clock performance four *Li*ras the first class.

Q- There are tickets for six *Li*ras.

A- First class is better because you can see the whole screen.

Q- But it's better in the back. The last row is the best.

A- No, because you must consider the stage... because there is the stage and the pictures.

Translation

Text B

- Z- Speaking of care-free living, did I tell you about my gastritis troubles ? You know that before I left I had gastritis troubles. Especially there, it was greatly aggravated. I went to consult a doctor. After he examined me he said, "There is nothing wrong with you. Yours is a functional trouble. You must not worry and you must arrange to have five light meals a day."
- A- If you can manage to do this it would be wonderful.
- Z- It so happened that Ramadan came immediately after. So I ignored the doctor's advice and fasted. I thought I'd try. If I got no pain I'd continue fasting and if I had any pain I would give up fasting. So everything went well and I was not inconvenienced. On the contrary fasting made me a little better. I explained this to myself later on. In addition to the fact that the stomach would be empty, one experiences inner peace. This peace relieves both nerves and stomach. Anyway after Ramadan was over, the pain started again. And this went on until I left. The minute I set foot aboard the ship all pain stopped. Then I started eating all sorts of things and I was no longer afraid of eating pickles and I gave up milk after I was sick of it. Subsequently I found it easy to go to sleep.
- A- That's it. You stopped worrying. You realized that that

period was a period of relaxation.

Z- I came here and it did not bother me either. Generally speaking, it rarely bothers me at the moment. There was something else. It became possible for me to have my siesta. I would fall asleep right away. So this month was a period of complete relaxation. Recently, however, I've been thinking about travel. I keep trying for a long time but I can't sleep. Moreover, I have been recently involved in a new case... So this is a matter of great importance. Being without any worries is vital. I must say that, for more than ten years, I hadn't had a period of relaxation like the seven days I spent aboard the ship.

Translation

Text C

B- Have you asked about the requirements for the science section?

S- I've forgotten. You said he got his Baccalaureate, science section ?

B- Yes. I think he is eligible for all sections.

S- This is as far as I know. Many students with Baccalaureate, science section are enrolling in the Faculty of Arts. These would be the students who were not accepted in the Faculty of Medicine or the Faculty of Sciences.

B- Well if they have got their Baccalaureate, science section, why don't they accept them in the Faculty of Medicine ?

S- They cannot accept all students because of the limited number of places available. Consequently they accept students according to their grades or they require a certain percentage of the Baccalaureate grades.

B- Well, what do you think ? Shall we enroll him here or shall we send him to Europe directly ?

S- It doesn't matter at this stage.

B- But which is better ?

S- If you are prepared to spend on him it's better if he went to Europe.

B- Where would you recommend ?

S- It depends ... What does he want to read ?

B- He's planning to study Political Economy.

S- Let him go to England then. There is a famous school in London that is well known for these studies. Only he must be proficient in English.

Translation

Text D

H- Ousama, have you got a camera?

?- What do you want it for?

H- We want to take snaps of Tarafa on his birthday.

?- I'll look for it.

H- If you do bring it, do so on Saturday.

?- I suggest that you buy it.

H- Well how about selling it to us on instalment terms.

?- Agreed. Fifty liras per month. A hundred liras as a first payment, and the balance would be fifty liras per month.

B- Don't pay any attention to what he says. My son likes to joke.

H- We want to buy it. He has been offering it for sale for three years. The important thing is the price.

?- Five hundred liras.

H- Get on with you. A new one costs five hundred liras.

?- Well, this is a new one. I am selling you a camera on long term instalments. It will take you two years to pay it off.

H- We don't want to. We can buy one from the Russian Pavilion for forty liras.

?- Russian cameras are not good. They break easily, especially those that cost forty liras. I had one like that and it was damaged.

A- Oh, no ! I tried it and got very clear pictures. Now we

want to borrow, we don't want to buy. Will you lend it
to us or won't you ?

Translation

Text E

Z- Yesterday we saw a good film at Al-Zahra cinema.

N- We saw it too yesterday. We got there about five past ten.
The film had just started.

Z- In this film they are poking fun at the Russians and the
Americans in their competing to help small states.

G- Is it worth seeing?

Z- Yes it is. The first scene is in the United Nations. They
would be voting on a certain issue and all that was needed
was one vote. A delegate of a small state hadn't cast his
vote yet. When his turn comes he abstains. So the Russians
and the Americans make investigations in order to make him
vote for them and win his vote. The Americans want him to
vote on their side and the Russians want him to vote for them.
So the Americans try to give his state wheat, etc. and the
Russians want to send their ballet and provide arms and rockets
Then Washington calls the American Embassy and the operator
is the foreign minister in that state. When he knows that
Washington wanted to speak to the American Embassy, he rings
up the Russian Embassy and tells them there was a call for the
American Embassy from Washington and asks them how much they
would pay if he lets them hear the conversation. So he starts
negotiating with them. Then Moscow calls the Russian Embassy

So he rings up the American Embassy and negotiates with them how much... how much they would pay if he let them hear the conversation. In short, it is a very amusing film.

G- In that case we must see it.

Z- Then the son of the Russian ambassador falls in love with the daughter of the American ambassador. The Russian ambassador had realized that there was something wrong with his son because he hadn't been eating well. So he discusses the matter with his wife and she tells him that his son needs a wife. So he sends for a Russian girl from Russia. The daughter of the American ambassador had been engaged to an American, who comes to marry her and finds that she is in love with the son of the Russian ambassador. In the end the daughter of the American ambassador marries the son of the Russian ambassador and the Russian girl who had been sent for to be married to the son of the Russian ambassador falls in love with the American who was the fiancé of the American ambassador's daughter, and they get married.

Translation

Text F

Z- Let's consider the topic of the university. I am very much interested in this topic. Tell me something about your studies, your exams and university life.

H- You know how it is with universities... You know our university. What do you think of the university life of your time?

Z- In our case... We ourselves created university life and we were responsible for this and we didn't see the things you are talking about. It so happened that there was a group of people who got on together and who had the same mentality. Therefore university life was ideal during our days. I don't know if something new is happening because I am not in touch....

H- Well, what do you think of the boys and girls you taught in the first year?

Z- They were very nice. I had no objection to^{or} criticism of them.

H- As to this year, I couldn't find a friend who had been able to form a group who could get on together. Throughout the year we used to come to classes where girls sat on one side and boys on the other.

Z- Strange.

H- Girls would not greet the boys and the same applied to the boys.

Z- Well, tell us something about your studies.

N- Oh dear, you are so much concerned about studies. You always talk about studies.

H- We had strikes all the time. The university was open for about one and a half or two months. That's why they are having a special session to give students a second chance.

N- Lectures were....

Z- But you are not qualified to talk on the subject because you didn't attend lectures. As to Haifa, she always attended lectures. Tell us, then, Haifa, about your work this year.

H- We had four subjects in the first term. Two first year subjects and two second year subjects. And there was little attendance. It was such a short period of time and the syllabus was the same. It was not less than that of last year's. So the whole session was a period of preparation for the exam. And the American staff were not the best we've had. I don't know why. Perhaps they were disturbed by the political events. I don't know. The World literature professor was quite a character. In the first half, she used to lecture on world literature and on poetry. In poetry she spent a long time on Beowulf although it was not in the syllabus. Then she lectured on Everyman as a representative of religious poetry. In the second half, the language professor took over the poetry lectures.

Translation

Text G

G- Where is your wife?

S- She is supposed to come at a quarter past or twenty past seven.

Z- Whenever I have a date with ladies I give myself extra time. I told her to come here at seven, knowing she does not come on time. This time, however, she surprised me by being on time.

G- She surprised you? For her to be on time surprises you?

Z- Tell him what happened last time when we wanted to go to Bloudan.

A- We had planned to go to Bloudan. He had arranged to meet his friends at six. So he told me to come and meet him here at half past five. I was at the hairdresser's and asked him if I could have my hair done by half past five and he said yes. But he didn't finish until ten to six. Then I went home to get dressed and I arrived at five past six. Is it too much for a lady to be five minutes, or ten minutes, or even a quarter of an hour late?

G- Or half an hour. It's not much, considering she was at the hairdresser's.

Z- Merely asking whether it is too much for a lady to be five or ten minutes late means that she thinks that it is expected of a lady to be late. It is the rule. What is more, she

considered that she was only ten minutes late, when in fact she was forty minutes late because we were supposed to meet at half past five and she turned up at ten past six.

A- What would you have done with me from half past five to six, considering you had arranged to meet your friends at six.

Z- I had given myself extra time so that we might not be embarrassed and arrive late.

A- Forget it. It so happened also that the friends we were supposed to meet turned up a little early.

Z- No, they were exactly on time.

G- Now listen, make-up is a vital thing from the point of view of women. Therefore it doesn't matter how much time they spend.

A- And he knows that I am late in everything except when it is a matter of make-up. If ever I am late it's on account of the children.

Z- I can't understand this. I understand that when you have an appointment you must give yourself extra time to be on the safe side. Being late is something that bothers me.

Translation

Text H

G- Are you going by plane or by ship?

Z- I like to travel by ship but I'll try to go back by plane to save time.

G- If you go by plane, don't you think it would be better if you went back on your own, rather than the whole lot going together in one plane? You can find a house at leisure.

Z- I never thought of it. Anyway I am going to write to my previous landlord and ask him if his house is still available. If it is available we will all go together. If not, as you say, it is more appropriate if I went on my own, found a house, and then they could join me.

G- Because if you go with your family you'll have to accept the first house that turns up regardless of its rent and its specifications.

Z- The first time I went there I was on my own and I agreed with the landlady to bring my family and, naturally, she raised the rent. So I sent for them. A fortnight after their arrival the landlady couldn't stand the children any longer.

G- So she turned out to be one of those who don't like children.

Z- She said I must look for another house. So I tried, but when I didn't find one quickly she started doing all sorts of nasty things to us. Consequently I had to rent an expensive house because we could not stand her unpleasantness.

- Joos, Martin, 'The English Verb. Form & Meanings', The University of Wisconsin Press, Madison and Milwaukee, 1964.
- Juillard Alphonse and Macris James, 'The English Verb System', (Janua Linguarum XXIV); 's-Cravenhage: 1962.
- Kruisinga, E., and Erades, P.A., 'An English Grammar', Vol. I, Parts 1 and 2. P. Noordhoff, Groningen, 1953.
- Lado, Robert, 'Linguistics Across Cultures', Ann Arbor, The University of Michigan Press, 1957.
- Long, Ralph B., 'The Sentence and its Parts. A Grammar of Contemporary English', The University of Chicago Press, 1961.
- Mitchell, T. F., 'Colloquial Arabic. The Living Language of Egypt', The English Universities Press Ltd., London, 1962.
- 'Syntagmatic Relations in Linguistic Analysis', Transactions of the Philological Society, pp. 101-118, 1958.
- 'Some English Phrasal Types', Preprint to appear in J. R. Firth Memorial Volume.
- Palmer, H. E., 'A Grammar of Spoken English on a strictly phonetic basis' W. Heffer and Sons, Ltd., Cambridge, 1928.
- Quirk, Randolph, 'Relative Clauses in Educated Spoken English', English Studies, Vol. XXXVIII, pp. 97-109.
- Roberts, Paul, 'Patterns of English', Harcourt, Brace and Co., New York, 1956.
- 'English Sentences', Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., New York, 1962.

Bibliography

- ✓ Bloch, Bernard, 'English Verb Inflection', *Language*, Volume 23, pp.399-418.
- Bloomfield, Leonard, 'Language', Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1956.
- Christophersen, Paul, 'The Articles: a study of their theory and use in English', Einar Munksgaard, Copenhagen, 1939.
- ✓ Curme, George, 'A Grammar of the English Language', Volume III : Syntax, D.C. Heath and Company, New York, 1931.
- ✓ Diver, William, 'The Chronological System of the English Verb', *Word*; Volume 19, Number 2, pp.141-181 (August 1963)
- Francis, W.N., 'The Structure of American English. With a chapter on American English Dialects by Raven I. McDavid, Jr.', Ronald Press Co., New York, 1958.
- Fries, C. C., 'The Structure of English', Longmans, Green and Company, London, 1958.
- ✓ Hill, Archibald A. 'An Introduction to Linguistic Structures. From Sound to Sentence in English.' Harcourt, Brace and Co., New York, 1958.
- ✓ Hockett, C. F., 'A Course in Modern Linguistics', Macmillan and Co., New York, 1958.
- ✓ Jespersen, Otto, 'Essentials of English Grammar', George Allen and Unwin, Ltd., London, 1933.

Scheurweghs, G., 'Present-day English Syntax', Longmans, Green and Co., Ltd., London, 1959.

Sledd, James, 'A Short Introduction to English Grammar', Scott, Foreman and Co., Chicago, 1959.

Strang, Barbara M. H., 'Modern English Structure', Edward Arnold (Publishers) Ltd., London, 1962.

Sweet, Henry, 'A New English Grammar, Logical and Historical', Clarendon Press, Oxford, 1898.

Twaddell, W. F., 'The English Verb Auxiliaries', Brown University Press, 1960 (Providence. Rhode Island)

Zandvort, R. W., 'A Handbook of English Grammar', Longmans, Green and Co., Ltd., London, 1957.