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CONTENTS

- 1- SELECTED RESEARCHES ON
THE FIELD OF TRANSLATION
- 2- PRACTICAL PASSAGES TO
TRANSLATE FROM ENGLISH
INTO ARABIC
- 3- PRACTICAL PASSAGES TO
TRANSLATE FROM ARABIC
INTO ENGLISH

Dr. Rewaa Anwer

Translate

Deutsch

বাংলা

français

Український

Русский

English

中文

Español

italiano

bahasa Indonesia

한국어

عبرية

Tiếng Việt

Türk

हिन्दी

Português

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PREFACE

In 1990, I was asked to teach a course in Contrastive Analysis to undergraduate students majoring in translation. The course aimed at developing a contrastive analysis of Arabic and English for use by prospective English-Arabic and Arabic-English translators. The aim of the contrastive study was to produce a systematic comparison of salient aspects of the sound systems, grammars, lexicons, and writing systems of Arabic and English. Psycholinguistic implications of structural similarities and differences between the two languages for Arab learners of English were indicated. The result of the contrastive analysis was used to provide a basis for more sophisticated and effective translation of Arabic and/or English texts and to illustrate these applications by the translation of a set of specimen of Arabic and English texts.

The course started in 1990. The Arabic-English contrastive analysis course assumed the following structure: theoretical and methodological issues; comparing and contrasting Arabic and English phonetics; comparing and contrasting Arabic and English morphology (inflection, derivation and compounding); comparing and contrasting Arabic and English word formation; comparing and contrasting Arabic and English semantics; comparing and contrasting Arabic and English culture; comparing and contrasting Arabic and English writing systems; interference problems; and how to translate differences.

To obtain a description of a topic in the Arabic and English system, all standard works, references, available articles related to a particular problem were consulted. Analyses were written on the basis of specialized literature available and on the analyzer's experience and intuition, consulting with experts in a particular area. The same was done for each topic in both systems. Then, the topic was examined contrastively and we got the first report on the CA of a grammatical or phonological unit.

I began to assemble my own corpus of English and semantically corresponding Arabic sentences on punch cards. The sentences were taken from novels, magazines, newspapers and scientific works. The corpus consisted of 10,000 English sentences and the same number of Arabic sentences. The corpus was considered as an aid to my research.

This book has been prepared with three objectives in view: first, it is designed particularly to meet the needs of translation students. So, for example, the morphological systems of both languages are dealt with in considerable detail; many examples are given. Secondly, it is intended to be really comprehensive, in that it will, as far as possible, provide an answer to any problem the student is likely to encounter in their translation career. Lastly, it is meant to be a practical contrastive grammar, one that is suitable both for work in class and for students working on their own.

As I complete this book, I would like to thank Dr Mahasen Abu-Mansour of Um Al-Qura University and Dr Mushira Eid of the University of Utah, Dr Wasmiyya Al-Mansour, Dr Ibrahim Al-Shamsan and Dr Othman Al-Fraih of King Saud University for valuable discussions. Thanks are also due to my students who gave an opportunity to explore aspects of Arabic linguistics that were new to me. Any shortcomings in this work are my sole responsibility.

Introduction

In this chapter, You will read about the following:

Aims of the Present Chapter

(Lehmann, Gleason, Lado,

The aim of this chapter is to describe the Arabic and English morphological systems in order to identify the similarities and differences between them. The process of comparing both systems will involve the following:

First, the analysis and description of the elements of morphology: inflection, derivation and compounding. Both descriptions will cover the form, the meaning and the distribution of morphemes. The distribution of morphemes is the sum of all the contexts in which they can occur. A full understanding of any morpheme involves understanding its distribution as well as its meaning. The various kinds of restrictions on the combinations of morphemes, the order in which morphemes can be arranged, sets of morphemes which can never occur together in the same word, classes of morphemes required to occur in certain circumstances will be given. Complex patterns of selection of allomorphs will be given. The type of meaning implied in the absence of any morpheme of a given order will be pointed out. All allomorphs will be listed and rules for the correct selection will be given. General morphophonemic statements which apply quite universally in the system will be made.

In describing the inflectional morphemes of Arabic and English the inflectional categories number, gender, person, case, tense, voice, mood, aspect, transitivity and comparison will be defined, and under each inflectional category, the parts of speech inflected for that particular category will be listed. For each part of speech, the underlying portion, or the base or root, and the modified items or affixes will be determined. The allomorphs will be identified and their distribution will be determined. The arrangement of inflected elements and any modifications involved will be determined. The meaning of lexical items containing each morpheme or set of morphemes will be given in the other language.

In describing Arabic and English derivational morphemes, one must deal with formal characteristics and with meaning relationships.

Stem formation will be described on the basis of the affixes used. For each affix the class or classes of stems (including roots) with which it is used and any pertinent restrictions within the class or classes; the class of stems produced; and any morphophonemic changes in either the affix itself or the stem will be described. (Gleason)

In describing Arabic and English compounds, the simple or naked words will be determined. Various compounds will be identified and the complex forms will be noted. Sequences will be accounted for. Compounds will be related to sentence patterns. They will be analyzed in accordance with the larger syntactic sequences of the language, and compounds will in turn illuminate these sequences. Classes of compounds will be set up, the patterning of the items themselves and their relationships with other comparable items in the language.

Secondly, all inflectional, derivational and compositional morphemes in each language will be summarized in compact outline form.

Thirdly, comparison of Arabic and English morphological systems will not be made, since Arabic and English are not cognate languages, i.e. genetically related. They are considerably different in the classes that are characterized by inflectional affixes. There is no way to compare the forms within the classes. The inflectional morphemes and derivational and compounding processes do not match in any of the word classes.

Morphemic analysis of each language is hardly practical without close attention to the meanings of forms in the other language. This will be manipulated in the form of translations. Translation can obscure some features of meaning and falsify others. Meaning is a variable which is not subject to any precise control. Meaning will be used in combination with some facts of distribution. Meaning is also needed to assess the pertinence of the distributional features.

Troublesome morphemes for Arabic-speaking students will be described. An English morpheme will be taken and how that morpheme may be translated will be given.

Definition of Morphemes

(Lehman, Gleason, Stageberg)

In grammar, words are divided into morphemes. A morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of form which is grammatically pertinent. A morpheme is not identical with a syllable. It may consist of a single phoneme such as 'a' and may consist of one or more syllables as in 'the' and 'between'. A morpheme may be free or bound. A free morpheme is one that can stand alone as a word or enter in the structure of other words as 'boy, play, an'. A bound morpheme cannot be uttered alone with meaning. It always combines with one or more morphemes to form a word as (*dis-*, *-ing*, *-ment*).

Morphemes stand in a particular relationship to each other. In any word there is a central morpheme that has the principal meaning called a root or a base; and one or more subsidiary morphemes called an affix. A root is an allomorph of a morpheme which has another allomorph that is a free form deep (depth). It is a borrowing from another language in which it is a free form or a base as in geology, pediatrics, microfilm. A word may contain one base and several affixes. A base may be free or bound. Any base may have more than one form. An affix may be directly added to a root or to a stem. A stem consists of a morpheme or a combination of morphemes to which an affix can be added. Some stems or words contain two or more roots. These are called compound stems. An affix is a bound morpheme that occurs before or behind a base. Roots are longer than affixes and much more numerous in the vocabulary. For example, in 'unemployed', 'employ' is central and 'un-' and '-ed' are peripheral. If an affix precedes the root it is called a prefix, if it follows the root, it is called a suffix, and if it is placed inside the root with which it is associated, it is called an infix. A word may contain up to three or four suffixes, but prefixes a single prefix, except for the negative prefix un- before another prefix. When suffixes multiply, there is a fixed order in which they occur.

A morpheme is a group of one or more allomorphs which vary

widely in shape, in accordance with their environment. Many morphemes in English have only one allomorph. Few morphemes are used throughout all forms without more than one allomorph. English /ing/ is a morpheme that has only one shape. When allomorphs are determined by phonological criteria, they are phonologically conditioned. The modifications of bases and affixes in morphological processes are known as morphophonemic changes, and their study is morphophonemics. Morphophonemics is the process by which morphemes vary in their pronunciation, e.g.: the plural morpheme /-s/ has three individual forms: /-s/, /-z/, /-iz/ and they constitute three allomorphs of the plural morpheme.

Bound morphemes are usually written with a hyphen on the side in which they are bound. So dis is written dis- and ment is written -ment. Free morphemes are written without hyphens. Braces / / are used for morphemes and slants // for allomorphs; a tilde ~ means 'in alternation with', e.g.: /-d1/ = /-id/ ~ /-t/ ~ /-d/.

Definition of Grammar

Grammar is the study of morphemes and their combinations. It comprehends two subdivisions: morphology and syntax. Morphology is the description of the combinations of morphemes in words. Syntax is the description of larger combinations of words. It is the arrangement of words as elements in a sentence, to show their relationship.

Definition of Morphology

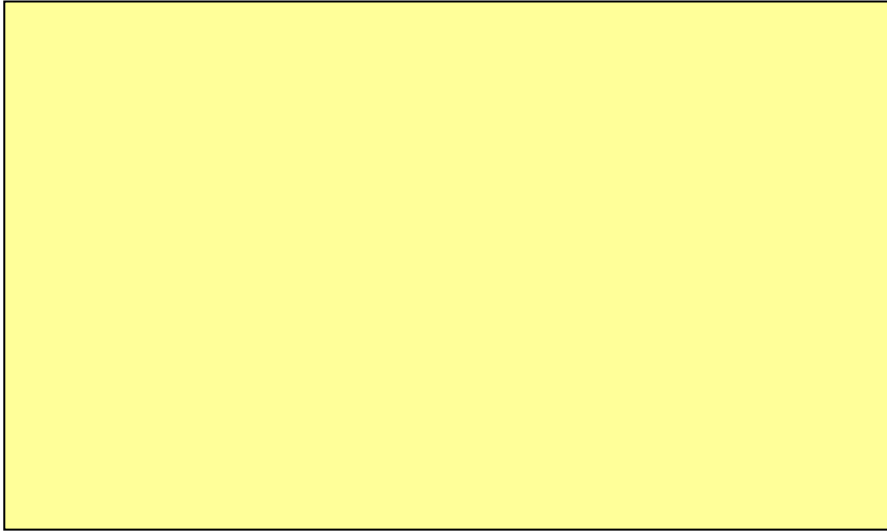
(Dictionary of Reading,

Morphology is the study of the internal structure of words and of the rules by which words are formed. It is divided into two main branches: inflectional morphology and word-formation (lexical morphology). (Bauer). Inflectional morphology deals with the various forms of lexemes, while word-formation deals with the formation of new lexemes from given bases. Word-formation can in turn be divided into derivation and compounding (or composition). Derivation is concerned with the formation of new lexemes by affixation,

compounding with the formation of new lexemes from two (or more) potential stems. Derivation is sometimes subdivided into class-maintaining derivation and class-changing derivation. Class-maintaining derivation is the derivation of new lexemes which are of the same form class (part of speech) as the base from which they are formed, whereas class-changing derivation produces lexemes which belong to different form classes from their bases. Compounding is usually subdivided according to the form class of the resultant compound: that is, into compound nouns, compound adjectives, etc. It may also be subdivided according to the semantic criteria exocentric, endocentric, appositional and dvanda compounds. (Bauer).

Morphology consists of two layers: an outer one involving inflectionally bound forms and an inner one the layer of derivation. Hall.

Inflection



Introduction:

(def. Lehmann, Covell)

Inflection is a change in the form of words by which some words indicate certain grammatical relationships as number, gender, case, tense, voice, mood, aspect, transitivity and comparison. Inflectional Morphology is the body of rules that describe the manner in which a lexical item has a grammatical morpheme joined to its beginning or end. This grammatical morpheme shows a grammatical category of gender, number, person, tense, voice, mood, aspect, case, transitivity, or comparison. Inflectional categories may not be consistently indicated by the same inflectional morpheme. Some inflectional categories may have homonymous inflections. Inflectional morphemes may duplicate other syntactic information in the sentence. For nouns, pronouns, and adjectives classes of inflection are called *declensions*; for verbs they are called *conjugation*; and for adjectives they are called *comparison*. Parts of speech such as nouns, verbs, and adjectives may be identified by the inflection they undergo. Inflectional morphemes are those prefixes and suffixes that perform a grammatical function.

1 Number

Number is the inflection of nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives and determiners to show singular, dual, or plural forms.

1.1 English Number Morphemes

(Stockwell, Stageberg, Gleason, Quirk & Greenbaum, Eckersley & Eckersley, Frank, Jackson, Covell, Webster Unabridged Dictionary)

English has two forms of number: singular and plural. Singular denotes only one and plural denotes two or more. Nouns, pronouns, verbs, the indefinite article and demonstratives are marked for number. Adjectives and the definite article are not marked for number. English subjects (head nouns, and pronouns) and verbs show number agreement. Singular subjects (head nouns or pronouns) take singular verbs and plural subjects take plural verbs. English demonstratives

and the indefinite article also show number agreement with the noun they modify.

Nouns:

In English, the class NOUN is associated with an inflectional category NUMBER. The plural suffix /-s/ may be added to the base form which is singular to convert it to plural. This plural suffix has a large number of allomorphs. The following is a detailed description of the form, distribution, and meaning of the plural suffix.

- (1) The regular plural suffix *-s* is added to singular nouns e.g.: *cats, bats, boys, dogs*; nouns describing the people of a country (nouns of nationality) *Americans, Germans, Iraqis, Greeks, Turks, Finns, Spaniards* and to compound noun. Some compound nouns, take the plural suffix *-s* in the first element as in *passers-by, mothers-in-law*; some take the plural suffix in both the first and the last elements as in *women doctors*; and others take the plural suffix in the last element as in *assistant professors*.
- (2) The suffix *-es* is added to singular nouns ending in /s, z, sh, ch, j/, e.g.: *buses, dishes, churches, bridges, roses*. It is added to singular nouns ending in *-y* preceded by a consonant as in *sky, skies; spy, spies; story, stories*. Nouns ending with *-y* preceded by a vowel take the plural suffix /-s/ as in *boys, days, bays, storeys*. It is also added to singular nouns ending in /-o/ preceded by a consonant as in *echo-es, potato-es, hero-es, embargo-es, tomato-es, veto-es, torpedo-es*. Nouns ending with /-o/ preceded by a vowel take the plural suffix /-s/, e.g.: *studio-s, radio-s, piano-s*. Some take the suffix /-os/ or /-oes/ as *archipelago, buffalo, cargo, flamingo, halo, tornado, volcano, commando*.
- (3) Nouns of unusual form, letters, numbers, signs, some words take the plural suffix /-'s/, when thought of as things, e.g.: *1980's, TA's, A's, B's, 5's, when's, do's and don't's*
- (4) The plural suffix *-s* is pronounced [s] after a voiceless consonant as in *cats*; it is pronounced [z] after a voiced consonant as in

dogs; and it is pronounced [iz] after [s, z, sh, ch, dj] as in *buses, roses, bridges, churches, dishes*.

- (5) The suffix /-s/ is not added to singular invariable nouns ending in -s. Although such nouns are plural in form, yet they are construed as singular, e.g.:
- *News*
 - Some diseases: *measles, German measles, mumps, rickets, shingles*.
 - Subject names ending in -ics: *classics, linguistics, mathematics, phonetics, pediatrics, statistics, politics, economics, graphics, and astronautics*. Nouns ending in -ics are singular when they denote scientific subjects, and plural when they denote activities and qualities such as *acrobatics, acoustics*.
 - Some games: *cards, billiards, bowls, dominoes, checkers*.
 - Some proper nouns: *Algiers, Athens, Brussels, the United Nations*.
- (6) The suffix /-s/ occurs in some plural invariable nouns. These nouns have no singular form, e.g.:
- Tools and articles of dress consisting of two equal parts which are joined: *tongs, binoculars, pincers, pliers, scales, scissors, tweezers, glasses, spectacles, pyjamas, pants, shorts, tights, trousers*.
 - Other nouns that only occur in the plural are: *the Middle Ages, annals, archives, arms, ashes, brains, clothes, the Commons, customs, earrings, fireworks, funds, goods, greens, guts, heads, lodgings, looks, manners, means, oats, outskirts, premises, remains, riches, savings, stairs, surroundings, troops, tropics, valuables*.
- (7) A suffix zero, symbolized -∅, indicating no formal change in the stem form, but with plural meaning, is used with collective nouns such as: *cattle, clergy, gentry, people, police, youth*.
- (8) Nouns ending in -f:

- Some singular nouns ending in -f form their plurals by voicing of the last consonant of the stem and adding the plural suffix -es, as in: *wife, wives; leaf, leaves; half, halves; calf, calves; knife, knives; loaf, loaves; life, lives; self, selves; thief, thieves.*
 - Some singular nouns ending in -f have a regular plural: *beliefs, chiefs, roofs, safes, proofs, cliffs.*
 - Some nouns ending in -f have both regular and voiced plurals: *dwarfs, dwarves; handkerchief, handkerchiefs; hoof, hooves; scarf, scarves.*
- (9) Some common nouns form their plural by a replacive allomorph. Here, plural formation involves mutation (internal change of vowel) as in: *foot, feet; tooth, teeth; goose, geese; man, men; louse, lice; mouse, mice; woman, women.* Some nouns that describe the people of a country (nouns of nationality) and end with -man also take the replacive allomorph -men as in *Englishman, Englishmen.*
- (10) The suffix /-en/ is used with or without additional changes in three words: *brother, brethren; ox, oxen; child, children.*
- (11) A suffix zero, symbolized -<, indicating no formal change in the stem form, but with plural meaning. Such nouns can be treated as singular or plural, e.g.:
- (9) Some nouns of animal, bird and fish: *sheep, sheep; fish, fish; pike, pike; trout, trout; carp, carp; deer, deer; salmon, salmon; moose, moose.* Some animal names have two a zero plural and a regular plural. In such cases, the zero plural is the one used in the context of hunting (language of hunters and fishermen); the regular plural is used to denote different individuals, varieties or species.
- (10) Quantitative nouns referring to numbers and measurements when used after a number or a quantity word such as: *hundred, thousand, million, billion, dozen, brace, head (of cattle)*

<i>one dozen</i>	<i>three dozen</i>
<i>one thousand</i>	<i>five thousand</i>
<i>one million</i>	<i>ten million</i>

- (11) Some nouns ending in -ies: *series, series; species, species;*
- (12) Nouns ending in -s in the singular and other nouns.
Headquarters, headquarters; means, means.
- (13) Some nouns describing the people of a country ending in -ese or -ss, e.g.: *Chinese, Swiss.*
- (14) Other nouns: *offspring, offspring; aircraft, aircraft.*
- (15) Certain singular loan words from other languages mostly Latin have retained the plural formation used in the original language. The following plural suffixes are used:
- Singular nouns ending in -us take the plural suffix -i as in: *stimulus, stimuli; alumnus, alumni; locus, loci.*
 - Singular nouns ending in -a take the plural suffix -ae: *alga, algae; larva, larvae.*
 - Singular nouns ending in -um take the plural suffix -a: *curriculum, curricula; bacterium, bacteria; stratum, strata.*
 - Singular nouns ending in -ex, -ix take the plural suffix -ices: *index, indices; appendix, appendices; matrix, matrices.*
 - Singular nouns ending in -is take the plural suffix -es: *analysis, analyses; hypothesis, hypotheses; parenthesis, parentheses; thesis, theses*
 - Singular nouns ending in -on take the plural suffix -a: *criterion, criteria; phenomenon, phenomena.*

- Singular nouns ending in *-eau* take the plural suffix *-eaux*: *bureau* , *bureaux*; *plateau*, *plateaux*.
- Certain loan words have regular plural: *bonus-es*, *campus-es*, *virus-es*, *chorus-es*, *circus-es*, *area-s*, *arena-s*, *diploma-s*, *drama-s*, *album-s*, *museum-s*, *stadium-s*, *electron-s*, *neutron-s*, *proton-s*.
- Foreign plurals often occur along with regular plurals. The foreign plural is commoner in technical usage, whereas the *-s* plural is more natural in everyday language. e.g.: *appendix*, *appendixes*, *appendices*; *formula*, *formulas*, *formulae*; *criterion*, *criteria*, *criteria*; *dogma*, *dogmas*, *dogmata*; *medium*, *mediums*, *media*.

Verbs

In English, verbs are not fully inflected for number. Only the present third person singular is marked for number. The present third person singular is the form used with singular nouns, with *he*, *she*, *it* and words for which these pronouns will substitute and with word groups, e.g.: *He goes*, *She writes*, *It eats*, *The boy runs*, *One thinks*.

The present third person singular morpheme /-S3/ has the same allomorph in the same distribution as the plural and possessive forms of the noun: /-s/, /-z/ and /-iz/ as in *stops*, *plays*, *drives*, *pushes*, *changes*. (See sections above and below).

Pronouns

The English pronoun system makes distinctions for number. Number distinctions occur with the first person (*I*, *we*); and third person (*he*, *she*, *it*, *they*). The second person pronoun (*you*) is unmarked for number. English also makes number distinctions in definitive pronouns, e.g.: *one*, *ones*; *other*, *others*.

Determiners

English articles and demonstratives in some forms show number agreement with the noun they modify. The indefinite article

occurs only before singular nouns (*a book, an orange*). However English demonstratives have singular-plural forms:

singular	plural
<i>This book</i>	<i>these books</i>
<i>That boy</i>	<i>those boys.</i>

1.1 Arabic Number Morphology

Arabic has three forms of number: singular, dual and plural. Singular denotes only one, dual denotes two individuals of a class or a pair of anything and plural denotes three or more. Nouns, adjectives, verbs, pronouns, relative pronouns and demonstratives are marked for number. The definite article is not marked for number. Arabic subjects and verbs, demonstratives and nouns, adjectives and nouns, and relative pronouns and nouns show number agreement. Arabic demonstratives show agreement with the noun they precede, adjectives and relative pronouns show agreement with the noun they modify (follow). Singular subjects take singular verbs; dual subjects take dual verbs and plural subjects take plural verbs.

Nouns and Adjectives

In Arabic, the classes NOUN and ADJECTIVE are associated with an inflectional category NUMBER. A dual suffix and a plural suffix are added to the base form which is singular to convert it to dual and plural. The dual suffix has few allomorphs; the plural suffix has a large number of allomorphs. The following is a detailed description of the dual and plural suffixes and their allomorphs, their distribution and meaning.

Dual

- (1) The dual morpheme has a number of variants. The distribution of the dual morpheme and its variants is as follows: /-aani/ is added to the singular base form of nouns and adjectives in the nominative case; /-aan/ is added to the base form in the nominative case before a pause; /-aa/ is added before another

apposited noun; /-ayni/ and /-ayn/ are added to the base form of the noun in the oblique (accusative or genitive) case as in :

	<i>nom.</i>	<i>accus. & gen.</i>
ولد	ولدان	ولدين
بنت	بنتان	بنتين
كتاب الولد	كتايا الولد	كتابي الولد
نشاط	نشاطان	نشاطين
خبيرة	خبيرتان	خبيرين

- (2) Collective nouns denoting two groups of something take the dual suffix **-aani, -aan, -aa, -ayni, -ayn, -ay:**

قومان ، شعبان ، جيشان ، خيلان ، جنودان ، ابلان ، جمالان

- (3) Changes ة to ت before the dual suffix, if the singular base form ends in ة:

طالبتين طالبتان طالبة
خبيرتين خبيرتان خبيرة
هناءين هناءان هناء
انشاءين انشاءان انشاء

- (4) Changes ي into و or ي before the dual suffix, when the singular base form ends in a quiescent ي :

مبنيين مبنيان مبنى
عصوين عصوان عصا
كبريين كبريان كبرى

- (5) The feminine ء is changed to و before the dual suffix, if the singular base form ends in it:

سماوين سماوان سماء
خضراوين خضراوان خضراء

- (6) ي is restored before the dual suffix, if a final ي is deleted from the singular base form:

قاضييين قاضيان قاض
دانييين دانيان دان

- (7) w is deleted before the dual suffix in nouns like:

ابوين ابوان اب

اخون اخوان اخ
حموين حموان حمو

- (8) Some nouns occur only in the dual and have no singular base form:

اثنان ، اثنتان ، ثنتان

- (9) Some nouns are dual in form, but singular meaning:

حسنين ، زيدان

- (10) In compound nouns consisting of a noun + an apposed noun, the dual suffix is added to the first element:

عبدي الله عبد الله عيد الله

In verbal compounds or agglutinated compounds, the dual allomorph ذوا or ذواتا is added before the compound:

ذواتا رام الله ، ذواتا بعلبك ، ذوا جاد الرب

Plural

- (1) Plural forms may be sound or broken. Sound plural forms are either masculine or feminine. The plural morpheme has a large number of variants. Their distribution is as follows: The sound masculine variants are /-uuna/, /-uun/, /-uu/, /-iina/, /-iin/, /-ii/. The suffix /-uuna/ is added to the singular masculine base form in the nominative case to convert it to sound masculine plural; /-uun/ is used in the nominative case before a pause; /-uu/ is used before another apposed noun; /-iina/ is used in the oblique (accusative and genitive) case; /-iin/ is used in the oblique (accusative or genitive) case before a pause, e.g.:

معلم	معلمون	معلمين
نشيط	نشيطون	نشيطين
اكرم	اكرمون	اكرمين
معلم المدرسة	معلمو المدرسة	معلمي المدرسة

- (2) ي is deleted before the plural suffix, if the singular base form ends in ي:

مرب	مربون	مربين
محلم	محامون	محامين

- (3) ى is deleted and substituted by fat-ha /a/ before the plural suffix:

مصطفى	مصطفون	مصطفين
مستبقى	مستبقون	مستبقين

Some nouns have an invariable plural form. The substantive اولو ends in the plural suffix -uu, but has no singular base form.

- (4) Some quasi-sound plural end in the plural suffix:

اهلون ، عالمون ، ابون ، اخون ، رمضانون ، ارضون ، بنون ، عشرون ، ،
ثمانون ، سنون

- (5) masculine nouns ending in feminine /?/ substitute their final /a/ by w before the plural suffix:

بيغاء	بيغاوين
حرباء	حرباوين

However, final /?/ is not substituted by w when it is original in the base form:

بناء	بناؤن
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- (6) In compound nouns consisting of a noun and an apposed noun, the plural suffix is added to the first element.

عبدى الله عبدو الله عبد الله

The plural allomorph ذو or ذوي is added to the base form of agglutinated compounds, verbal compound nouns:

ذوي جاد الحق	ذوو جاد الحق
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- (7) Some nouns ending in the plural suffix -uun, or -iin are plural in form , but have a singular meaning:

، عابدين ، فلسطين ، ياسمين ، زيتون ، زيدون ، خلدون

- (8) The feminine plural suffix /-aat/ is added to the singular base form of the feminine noun or adjective to convert it to plural,

e.g.:

بنت	بنات
طالبة	طالبات
فتاة	فتيات
كبيرة	كبيرات

- (9) The sound feminine plural suffix is also added to the singular base form of proper names of women, names of men ending in ة , most **substantives** ending in ة , names of letters, names of months, some derived nouns, and all diminutives, nouns of place, time and tools and instruments (not trilateral) not ending in the feminine ة , most singular nouns of foreign origin (borrowed words):

female names	هند	هندات		
male names	حمزة	حمزات	اسامة	اسامات
Substantives	نقابة	نقابات	علامة	علامات
Letters	سين	سينات	الف	الفات
			Months	محرم
	مصدر	تجمهر	تجمهرات	شوال محرمات
			استعلامات	شوالات
Diminutives	كتيب	كتيبات	شعيرة	شعيرات
Place noun	مجال	مجالات	متنزه	متنزهات
Time nouns	اطار	اطارات	منطلق	منطلقات
			Tools	غسالات
Borrowed	باص	باصات	تلفزيون	تلفزيونات
Borrowed	كربون	كربونات	تلفون	تلفونات
Others		شمال	شمالات	

- (10) Sometimes, the addition of the sound feminine plural suffix involves an internal change in the base form, e.g. /ʔ/ changes to /w/, e.g.:

صحراء	صحراوات
حمراء	حمراوات
عصا	عصوات

- (11) The addition of the sound feminine plural suffix involves a deletion of a consonant in the base form. Final ة or ت is deleted before the feminine plural suffix. Sometimes, /w/ is added, /aa/ is deleted:

طالبة	طالبات	فاطمة	فاطمات
كبيرة	كبيرات	حمزة	حمزات
بنت	بنات	اخت	اخوات

When the singular base form ends in /aat/, final ة is deleted and aa changes to ي or w:

قنوات قناة فتيات فتاة

- (12) Final ي of the base form changes into ي before the sound feminine plural suffix:
كبريات كبرى
- (13) /w/ or /h/ is sometimes added before the feminine plural suffix:
اخوات ، امهات
- (14) Some nouns ending in the feminine plural suffix have a singular meaning:
بركات ، فرحات ، عرفات
- (15) some feminine plural invariable nouns ending in /-aat/ have no singular base form: اولات
- (16) substantives of dual gender take two plural suffixes: the feminine plural suffix and the masculine plural suffix:
علامات علامون علامة

Broken Plurals

Unlike sound masculine and feminine plurals, broken plurals are not formed by the addition of a plural suffix. They are formed by many suppletive allomorphs which involve some internal change such as the addition or deletion of a consonant or by a change of vowels. There are a large number of derivational patterns according to which broken plurals can be formed. Both masculine and feminine singular nouns may have broken plural forms, e.g.: اقلام تحف وسائل طلاب كراسي
نوافذ اشجار ايدي

- (1) Some replace their entire stem by a wholly different stem as in امرأة, نساء. Sometimes there is no derivational relationship between the singular and the broken plural form, e.g.:
قوم رجل نساء امرأة ايل
جمل خيل فرس

(2) As to the meaning of broken plural forms, some broken plural patterns denote paucity, others denote multiplicity. Plurals of paucity refer to persons and things between 3-10, whereas plurals of multiplicity are used for eleven to an endless number of persons or things.

(3) Many singular nouns have several broken plurals sometimes with different meanings, e.g.:

انهار، انهر ، نهور ، نُهر ، نهر
سنوات ، سنون ، سنين ، سني □ سنة
صحراء صحارٍ ، صحارى ، صحاري □ ، صحراوات

(4) Some masculine and feminine proper nouns have two plural forms: a sound plural and a broken plural:

محامد محمدون محمد
اسنة سنانون سنان
زياتب زينبات زينب
زهرزهرات زهراء

(5) Some feminine singular nouns that do not end in ة and that consist of more than three radicals may have a sound feminine or broken plural:

احاسيس احساسات احساس

تدريبات تدريبات تدريب
تمرينات تمرينات تمرين
تقارير تقريرات تقرير
تعريفات تعريفات تعريف

(6) The elative has a sound masculine and a broken plural:

اكارم اكرمون اكرم
افاضل افضلون افضل

(7) collective nouns that have no singular base form such as :

سرب فريق وفد حشد آلاء انعام ابل تراب قوم شعب

However, these collective nouns may pluralize as follows:

اسراب فرق وفود حشود اترية اقوام شعوب

- (8) Genus., formed by deleting the suffix ة or relative noun ي from the singular form;

حمامة	حمام	تمرة	تمر
غنمة	غنم	طلبان	طلباني
عربي	عرب		

- (9) Some nouns have an invariable singular form. The singular and the plural forms are the same:

<i>singular</i>		<i>plural</i>	
ولد	ولد	فُلُوكُ	فُلُوكُ
خدم	خدم	حاج	حاج
بشر	بشر	ضيف	ضيف
عدو	عدو	رفيق	رفيق

- (10) Some nouns have an invariable broken plural form. They have no singular form:

انعام ذهب ، سكر ، تباشير ، ابابيل ، تعاجيب آلاء

Abstract nouns referring to the genus

The Number of Adjectives

- Arabic makes number distinctions in adjectives. An adjective may be singular, dual or plural
- Dual adjectives are formed by adding the dual suffix /-aan, -aani/ to the singular form in the nominative case; and by adding the suffix /-ayn, -ayni/ to the singular form in the oblique (accusative or genitive case), e.g.:

Singular dual

m	كبير	كبيران/كبيرين
f	كبيرة	كبيرتان/كبيرتين

The distribution of the adjective dual suffix and its allomorphs is the same as that of the noun dual suffix.

- Like nouns, plural adjectives are either sound (masculine or feminine) or broken; Sound masculine plural adjectives are

formed by adding the plural suffix /-uwn/ to the singular form in the nominative case; and by adding the suffix /-iyn/ to the singular form in the oblique (accusative or genitive case). Sound feminine plural adjectives are formed by adding the suffix /-aat/ to the singular form. e.g.:

	Singular	plural	
m	مجتهد	مجتهدون/مجتهدين	f
	مجتهدات	مجتهدة	

The distribution of the adjective plural suffix and its allomorphs are the same as that of the noun plural suffix and its allomorphs.

- Number is an obligatory category in adjectives when they follow the noun that they modify. Singular nouns are modified by singular adjectives, a dual noun is modified by a dual adjective and a plural noun is modified by a plural adjective, e.g.:

<i>Singular</i>	<i>dual</i>	<i>plural</i>
الولد الكبير	الولدان الكبيران	الاولاد الكبار
البنات الجميلة	البناتان الجميلتان	البنات الجميلات
معلم نشيط	معلمان نشيطان	معلمون نشيطون
يحتاج تفصيل اكثر		

Verbs

In Arabic, perfect (past), imperfect (present) and imperative verbs are inflected for number. Perfect and imperative verbs are marked for number by a pronominal suffix and imperfect verbs are marked for number by a pronominal prefix and suffix each of which has several allomorphs. The distribution of the perfect, imperative and imperfect pronominal number prefix and suffix and their variants are as follows: In perfect verbs, the suffix -tu, -ta, -ti, are singular; tumaa and humaa are dual; and -naa, -tu is used for the first person singular; -ta is used for the second person singular masculine, -ti for the second person singular feminine, 0 suffix is used with the third person masculine singular and feminine; -tumaa is used for the second person masculine and feminine dual; -humaa is used for the third person

masculine and feminine dual; -naa is used for the first person plural; -tum is used for the second person plural masculine; -tunna is used for the second person feminine plural; -uu is used for the third person masculine plural and -na is used in the third person feminine plural. (See table () for example.

In the imperative, verbs are inflected for number in the second person only. The suffix -aa is used for the second person feminine and masculine dual; -uu is used for the second person masculine plural and -na is used for the third person feminine plural and 0 suffix is used for the singular. (See Table for examples.

In the imperfect tense, the imperfect prefix ?a- is singular, na- is plural; ta- and ya- are oblique (used for singular, dual and plural). The Imperfect pronominal suffix -aa is used for the dual; -uu is used for the masculine plural and -na is used for the feminine plural and 0 suffix is used for the first, second and third person singular.(see Table () for examples).

Fully inflected verbs *الافعال الصحيحة* are classified into sound *السالم*, doubled *المضعف* and verbs containing a glottal stop *المهموز* (verbs with initial, medial or final glottal stop). When a pronominal suffix is added to a sound perfect or imperfect verb, no changes take place in the radicals of the the base form, e.g.:

- **perfect:** *sharibtu, sharibta, sharibti, shariba, sharibat; sharibtumaa, sharibaa, sharibataa; sharibnaa, sharibtum, sharibtunna, sharibuu, sharibna.*
- **Imperfect:** *?ashrab, tashrab, tashrabiin, yashrab; tashrabaan, yashrabaan; nashrab, tashrabuun, tashrabna, yashrabuun, yashrabna.*
- **imperative:** *?ishrab, ?ishrabii; ?ishrabaa?; ?ishrabuu, ?ishrabna.*

When a pronominal suffix is added to a perfect, imperfect, or imperative verb with a glottal stop, no changes take place als of the base form, e.g.:

- **perfect:** ?akaltu, ?akalnaa, ?akalta, ?akalti, ?akaltumaa, ?akaltum, ?akaltunna, ?akala, ?akalat, ?akagaa, ?akalataa, ?akaltum, ?akaltunna.
- **imperfect:** ?aakul, ta?kul, ta?kuliin, ya?kul, ta?kul; ya?kulaan, ta?kulaan; na?kul, ta?kuluun, ya?kuluun, ta?kuln.
- **imperative:** The glottal stop is deleted in the imperative form, when it is initial and medial e.g.: kul, kulii, kulaa, kuluu, kuln; sal, salii, salaa, saluu, salna; ?iqra?, ?iqra?ii, ?iqra?aa, ?iqra?uu, ?iqra?na.

When a pronominal suffix is added to a doubled verb, no changes take place in the radicals in the imperfect, but the geminated third radical is substituted by two separate consonants in the first and second person, and the base form remains the same in the third person singular. In the imperative, two forms may be used: one with a geminated consonant and one with two separate consonants, e. g.:

- **Imperfect:** ?ashudd, tashudd, tashuddiin, yashudd, tashudd; yashuddan, tashuddan; nashudd, tashudduun, tashdudna, yashudduun, yashdudna.
- **Perfect:** shadadtu, shadadta, shadadti, shadda, shaddat; shadadtumaa, shaddaa, shaddataa; shadadnaa, shadatum, shadadtunna, shadduu, shadadna.
- **imperative:** shudd, ?ushdud; shuddii, ?ushdudii; shuddaa, ?ushdudaa; shudduu, ?shduduu; ?ushdud.

Weak verbs *الافعال المعتلة* are verbs whose root (base form) contains w or y. There are four kinds of weak verbs: verbs in which the first radical consists of w or y (verbs with an initial w or y); verbs in which the second radical consists of w or y; verbs in which the third radical consists of w or y (verbs with a final w or y); trilateral verbs in which the first and the third radical consist of w and y; and quadilateral verbs in which the first and the third radical or the second and the fourth radical consist of w, y or aa.

When a pronominal suffix is added to a trilateral verb with an initial w, the base form is retained in the perfect, but w is deleted in the imperfect and imperative. The imperative glottal stop is also deleted. Verbs with an initial y do not undergo any change in their form when attached to a pronominal suffix.

- **Perfect:** *waqa9atu, waqa9ta, waqa9ti, waqa9, waqa9at; waqa9tumaa, waqa9aa, waqa9ataa; waqa9na, waqa9tum, waqa9tunna, waqa9uu, waqa9na.*
- **Imperfect:** *?aqa9, taaqa9, taqa9iin, yaqa9, taqa9, yaqa9aan, taqa9aan; naqa9, taqa9uun, taqa9na, yaqa9uun, yaqa9na.*
- **Imperative:** *qa9; qa9ii, qa9aa; qa9uu, qa9na.*

When a pronominal suffix is added to a trilateral verb with a medial aa, aa is deleted from the base form in the perfect in the first and second person and is retained in the third person. It is also deleted in the imperative. In the imperfect, aa changes into uu or ii in the imperfect.

- **Perfect:** *qultu, qulna, qulta, qulti, qultumaa, qultum, qultunna, qaala, qaalat, qalaa, qalataa, qaluu, qulna. 9ishtu, 9ishnaa, 9ishta, 9ishti, 9ishtumaa, 9ishtum, 9ishtunna, 9aasha, 9aashat, 9ashaa, 9ashataa, 9aashuu, 9ishna.*
- **Imperfect:** *?aquul, taquul, taquuliin, taquulaan, taquuluun, taqulna, yaquul, taquul, yaquulaan, taquulaan, yaquuluun, yaqulna. ?h9iish, na9iish, ta9iish, ta9iishiin, ta9iishaan, ta9iishuun, ta9ishna, 9aash, 9aashat, 9aashaa, 9aashataa, 9aashuu, 9ishna.*
- **Imperative:** *qul, quuli, quulaa, quulu, qulna. 9ish, 9iishii, 9iishaa, 9iishuu, 9ishna.*

When a pronominal suffix is added to a trilateral verb with a final aa, it changes to uu or ii.

- **Perfect:** *da9awtu, da9awta, da9awti, da9aa, da9at, da9awtumaa, da9ayaa, da9ataa, da9awtum, da9awtunna, da9awtum, da9awna.*

- **Imperfect:** ?ad9uu, nad9uu, tad9uu, tad9iin, tad9iyaan, tad9uun, tad9iina, yad9uu, tad9uu, yad9iyaan, tad9iyaan, yad9uun, yad9iin.
- **Imperative:**
triliteral verbs with an initial and a final w or y
quadiliteral verbs with an initial and a final w or y
- **Defective verbs** الافعال الناقصة such as the negative verb *laysa*,
- **Uninflected verbs** الفعل الجامد such as
- Number is an obligatory category in the verb, when it follows the subject. A singular subject takes a singular verb, a dual subject takes a dual verb and a plural subject takes a plural verb. However, the verb does not agree with the subject in number when it precedes it. The singular form of the verb is used when it precedes the subject. e.g.:

Sub. + V	V + Sub.
الولد جاء	جاء الولد
الولدان جاءا	جاء الولدان
الاولاد جاءوا	جاء الاولاد
الولد يلعب يلعب	يلعب الولد
الولدان يلعبان يلعب	الولدان
الاولاد يلعبون	الاولاد

Pronouns

The Arabic pronoun system makes distinctions for number. Number distinctions occur with independent and pronominal suffixes in the first, second, and third person and in the nominative, and oblique (accusative and genitive cases). The independent nominative pronouns ?anaa, ?anta, ?anti, huwa and hiya are singular; ?antumaa, and humaa are dual; nahnu, ?antum, ?antunna, hum, hunna are plural. The independent accusative pronouns ?iyyaya, ?iyyaka, /iyyaki, ?iyyahu, ?iyyaha are singular; ?iyyakumaa, and ?iyyailh are dual; ?iyyanaa, ?iyyakum, ?iyyakunna, ?iyyahum, ?iyyahunna are plural. As to pronominal

suffixes, nominative pronominal suffixes were mentioned in section (verb section above). The oblique (accusative and genitive) pronominal suffixes, -ii, -ka, -ki, -hu, -ha are singular; -kumaa, -humaa are dual; -kum, -kunna, -hum, -hunna are plural. (See Table).

Relative pronouns

Arabic relative pronouns show number distinctions. A dual suffix that has a number of allomorphs is added to the singular base form of the singular relative pronoun to convert it to dual and a plural suffix that has a number of replacive allomorphs are used to form the masculine and the feminine plurals. The relative pronouns التي ، الذي ، التي are singular; اللتين ، اللتان ، اللذين ، اللذان are dual; and اللاتي ، اللواتي ، اللاتي ، اللاتي are plural.

Relative pronouns agree in number with the noun they follow as follows:

الولد الذي	الولدان اللذان	الاولاد الذين
النافذة التي	النافذتان اللتان	النافذ اللاتي
المهندس الذي	المهندسان اللذان	المهندسون الذين
البنات اللواتي	البنتان اللتان	البنات اللواتي

Demonstratives

Arabic demonstratives are marked for number. A demonstrative may be singular, dual or plural. Dual and plural demonstratives are not formed by the addition of a dual or plural suffix; rather, the dual is formed by a replacive suffix, and the plural is formed by a suppletive suffix. The demonstrative pronouns هذا ، هذان ، هذين ، هاتان ، هاتان are singular; هذان ، هذين ، هاتان are dual and أولئك ، أولئك are plural.

<i>Singular</i>	<i>dual</i>	<i>plural</i>
هذا	هذان هذين	هؤلاء
هذه	هاتان هاتين	هؤلاء
ذاك	ذانك	اولئك
ذلك	ذانك	اولئك
تلك	تانك	اولئك

Arabic demonstratives show agreement with the noun they modify. Singular nouns are modified by a singular demonstrative, dual nouns are modified by dual demonstratives and plural nouns are modified by plural demonstratives, e.g.:

هذا ولد	هذان ولدان	هؤلاء اولاد
ذاك معلم	ذانك معلمان	اولئك معلمون
هذه نافذة	هاتان نافذتان	هؤلاء نوافذ
تلك طالبة	تانك طالبتان	اولئك طالبات

1.1 Implications for Translation

Arabic and English are not cognate languages, i.e. genetically related. They are considerably different in the classes that are characterized by inflectional affixes. Arabic has inflection in the nouns, adjectives, verbs, pronouns, relative and demonstrative pronouns; English has inflection in all these except adjectives. In Arabic, Inflectional affixes may be prefixes (in verbs), suffixes; in English they are suffixes only. Arabic has three number forms: singular, dual and plural; English has singular and plural.

1.3.1 Translation of English Singular and Plural Forms:

Although English and Arabic differ in the type of number morphemes, their variants and distribution, yet the number morphemes are generally similar in meaning in both languages.

None of the English plural suffixes can be used freely with any stem. The English plural suffix is characterized by having a large number of variants. This makes English irregular plurals unpredictable, and the student has to learn them as individual items. Translation students in particular have to learn which stems take /-en/, and which take /-a/; whether such suffixes are allomorphs of one suffix and whether they are distinct suffixes. There is practical value in knowing that /-en/ in oxen is an allomorph of /-z/ in boys, for this tells us that oxen functions in English in a similar way to /-z/ in boys, and tables . (Gleason).

Translating Countable Nouns

Countable nouns are those that can have both singular and plural forms. Most common nouns are countable. Some have a singular form but no plural form. Countable nouns form their plural by adding the plural suffix or any of its variants. They are preceded by a, an, one, many, few, this, these, those, a number like two, three, five...

The Arabic equivalent to an English singular countable noun is singular and to an English plural countable noun is always plural in regular and irregular variable nouns that have both singular and plural forms, e.g.:

Eng.	Ar	Eng.	Ar
Boy	ولد	boys	اولاد
calf	عجل	calves	عجول
ox	ثور	oxen	ثيران
foot	قدم	feet	اقدام
radius	قطر	radii	اقطار
larva	يرقة	larvae	يرقات
stratum	طبقة	strata	طبقات
matrix	مصفوفة	matrices	مصفوفات
thesis	رسالة	theses	رسائل
criterion	معياري	criteria	معايير
plateau	هضبة	plateaux	هضاب
American	امريكي	Americans	امريكان
Finn	فنلندي	Finns	فنلنديون
Englishman	انجليزي	Englishmen	انجليز
Pakistani	باكستاني	Pakistanis	باكستانيون

Translating Uncountable Nouns

Uncountable nouns refer to masses which cannot be easily thought of as consisting of separate items as substances, liquids, gases, and abstract ideas: Uncountable nouns have no plural form and hence do not take the plural suffix or any of its variants. The Arabic equivalent to English singular invariable concrete uncountable nouns is also a singular uncountable noun: *wood* خشب; *paper* ورق; *silk* حرير; *gold* ذهب; *flour* دقيق; *rice* رز; *meat* لحم; *fish* سمك; *fruit* فواكه فاكهة ,

rain مطر; water ماء; juice عصير; tea شاي; air هواء; oxygen اكسجين;
furniture اثاث; traffic حركة السير; luggage امتعة; money مال; noise ضجيج;
information معلومات; space فضاء; time وقت; history تاريخ; advice
نصيحة نصائح homework واجبات. The Arabic equivalent to some
English uncountable nouns is the sound feminine plural, e.g.: printed
matter مطبوعات; jewelry مجوهرات; dissert حلويات; machinery آليات ،
معدات

Uncountable nouns take a singular verb. They do not take an article. They may be preceded by quantity words like half of, little, some, any, all, much.

Many nouns have both a countable marked plural and an uncountable unmarked plural, e.g.: time وقت, times احيان; paper ورق, papers اوراق, water ماء, waters مياه; wind ريح, winds رياح; talk حديث, talks محادثات; light ضوء, lights ائوار; rock صخر, rocks صخور; hair شعر, hairs شعيرات. The countable is used for separate items or things, whereas the uncountable is used for an amount of the material or substance. The Arabic equivalent to the uncountable form is generally singular and to the countable nouns plural.

A countable noun describes a kind or a type of X whereas the X is the uncountable noun 'Tea and coffee are two popular drinks'. Nouns for liquids which are uncountable nouns can be used as countable nouns meaning a glass or cup of X or a type of X, e. g.: 'I drank two coffees', 'I bought three fruits'.

Unit words like piece, lump, item, sheet, a bar of, a lock of, a slice of, a stick of can be used to divide uncountable nouns into countable units. When translating English uncountable nouns in their countable form, the Arabic equivalent in most cases contains a unit noun, and in some cases a singular noun is used:

A piece of furniture: قطعة اثاث

An item of news: خبر

A length of rope: قطعة حبل

A sheet of glass: لوح من الزجاج

A bar of chocolate: لوح من الشوكولاتة

A lump of sugar: قطعة من السكر ، قالب سكر
A stick of chalk: طبشورة ، اصبع من الطباشير
A piece/a bit of information: معلومة
A block of ice: لوح من الثلج
a lock of hair: خصلة من الشعر
A slice of bread: شريحة خبز
A piece of bread: قطعة خبز
A bit of fun: قليل من المرح

Students should note that, in most cases the English unit word is translated into an Arabic unit word. However, the Arabic equivalent is not always a literal translation of the English unit word.

When English unit nouns are used in the plural, their Arabic equivalents are also plural, e.g.:

Two bars of chocolate: لوحان من الشوكولاتة
Three slices of bread: ثلاث شرائح من الخبز
Locks of hair: خصلات من الشعر

(English examples were taken from Leech pp. 490-491, 104-106.

Translating Proper Nouns

The Arabic equivalent to singular invariable proper nouns is singular, e.g.: *Henry* هنري; *the Thames* نهر التايمز

Translating Nouns that have the Same Singular and Plural Form

Nouns that have the same singular and plural forms include nouns for birds, animals, and fish, nouns for people ending in -ese, or -ee; nouns referring to numbers and measurements when used after a number or a quantity word, nouns ending in -ies in the singular; nouns ending in -s in the singular and other nouns.

Nouns that have the same singular and plural form are translated into Arabic, have two arabic equivalents, a singular equivalent and a plural equivalent. Thus the equivalents to *sheep* are

غزال *deer*, سمكة تراوت ، سمك تراوت *trout*, سمك اسماك *fish*, خروف خراف حيوان الموظ ، حيوانات الموظ, *moos* , سمكة سلمون اسماك السلمون *salmon*, غزلان *three thousand* الف, *one thousand* خمس درازن , *five dozen* درزن, *a dozen* عشرة *ten head of sheep* رأس من الاغنام, *one head of sheep* ثلاثة آلاف, سويسري سويسريون , *Swiss* صيني صينيون , *chinese* رؤوس من الاغنام *aircraft* نسل, *offspring* , However, the choice between the singular and the plural equivalent depends on the context.

- some nouns of animal, bird and fish: sheep, sheep; fish, fish; pike, pike; trout, trout; carp, carp; deer, deer; salmon, salmon; moose, moose. Some animal names have two a zero plural and a regular plural. In such cases, the zero plural is the one used in the context of hunting (language of hunters and fishermen); the regular plural is used to denote different individuals, varieties or species.
- Some nouns ending in -ies: *series, series; species, species;*
- nouns ending in -s in the singular and other nouns. *headquarters, headquarters; means, means.*

Translating Singular Nouns Ending In -S (No Plural):

The Arabic equivalent to singular invariable nouns that end with -s such as disease names, names of games, some proper names is singular:

Measles	الحصبة	mumps	النكاف
billiard	لعبة البلياردو	dominoes	لعبة الدومينو
Wales	ويلز	checkers	لعبة الداما
Algiers	الجزائر	Athens	مدينة اثينا
Brussels	مدينة بروكسل	Naples	نابولي مدينة

but not:

<i>The United States</i>	الولايات المتحدة
<i>the United Nations</i>	الامم المتحدة

The Arabic equivalent to singular invariable nouns such as subject names ending in -ics may be singular or plural. Nouns ending

in -ics are singular when they denote scientific subjects, and plural when they denote activities and qualities. *linguistics* اللغويات, *mathematics* الرياضيات, *phonetics* علم الصوتيات. But the Arabic equivalent to some subject names ending in -ics is singular: *pediatrics* طب الاطفال, *economics* علم الاقتصاد, *politics* علم السياسة, *statistics* الاحصاء, *astronautics*; *graphics*; *acrobatics*; *acoustics*.

Although Arabic subject names ending in /-aat/ such as *linguistics* اللغويات, *mathematics* الرياضيات, *phonetics* علم الصوتيات are plural in form, yet they are singular in meaning and the singular base form لغوي, رياضي, صوتي are never used to refer to subjects. Singular forms have a different meaning.

The Arabic equivalent to names of tools and articles of dress consisting of two parts which are joined, may be singular or plural depending on the context: *scissors* مقصات, *scales* موازين, *pants* بنطال بناطيل; *tongs* ملاقط, *pliers* كماشات. Sometimes the singular form of name of tools and articles of dress is distinguished by the use of 'pair of' when singular as in 'a pair of scissors'; 'a pair of pants'. In such a case, the equivalent is مقص and not زوج المقصات, for the word زوج means 'two' in Arabic, and hence the phrase زوج من المقصات means two pairs of scissors.

Translating Plurals Ending In -S

The Arabic equivalent to other plural invariable nouns that end in /-s/ and only occur in the plural is in some cases singular and plural in others and both are used in others: *The Middle Ages* العصور الوسطى, *archives*: الارشيف, *ashes*: رماد (رماد: سلاح, اسلحة), *arms* (رماد): is an uncount noun in Arabic, *clothes*: ملابس; the plural form is usually used in Arabic as in *contents* (محتويات غيرت ملابسي), occurs only in the plural when it refers to the table of contents of a book. *goods*: وسائل, وسيلة (may be singular or plural), *means*: وسائل (may be singular or plural), *outskirts*: ضواحي (although ضواحي has the singular form ضاحية, yet the plural form ضواحي is commonly used as in ضواحي المدينة and not ضاحية المدينة), *premises*: المكان, *remains*: آثار (the plural form is commonly used, although there is a singular form أثر), *riches*: قيمة ثروة ثروة سمكية, ثروة مائية, ثروة بشرية, ثروة معدنية, ثروة اقتصادية

possessions land, goods, money etc. in abundance.; *stairs* سلم ، درج ،
surroundings محيط بيئة، *manners* اخلاق ways of social life prevailing ,
social conditions or customs, polite ways of social behavior; valuables
اشياء (a thing especially a small thing of value as a piece of jewelry
ثمينه When it is in the singular it is an adjective and not a noun.

A few nouns have only a single form that of the stem, like tennis, courage, haste. Another group does not have a singular form but only that of the -s plural: *clothes, thanks, trousers, pants, binoculars, pliers*. These take they/them as a pronoun substitute and go with the plural form of the verb (my pants are dirty). Another group ends in the -s plural, words like *economics, politics, linguistics*, but these take it as a pronoun substitute and go with a singular form of the verb (mathematics is difficult). Nouns ending in -s like *ethics, news, pliers, measles*, may be either singular or plural, depending on the context in which they occur or on the nuance of meaning expressed.

Translating Collective Nouns (Unmarked Plurals)

Collective nouns are nouns that represent a collection or group of individuals (people) animals or things, like family, team, committee, faculty, flock, press, council. They may be either singular or plural in meaning when they are singular in form. A speaker is likely to use singular verbs, determiners, or pronouns in connection with such nouns when he is thinking of the unit as a single whole, but he will use plural forms when he has in mind the separate individuals. If the collective noun is singular in meaning (the unit is thought of as a single whole). the Arabic equivalent is a singular collective noun such as: *family* اسرة; *team* فريق; *committee* لجنة; *faculty* هيئة التدريس; *police* الشرطة. If such collective nouns are plural in meaning (thought of as separate individuals), the Arabic equivalent should include a unit word that refers to the single individual of the whole such as: *family* افرادالاسرة; *team* لاعبو الفريق; *committee* اعضاء اللجنة; *faculty* اعضاء هيئة التدريس; *police* رجال الشرطة

Translating Nouns with Two Plurals

Some English nouns have two plurals with two meanings. In

such a case, each plural has a different Arabic equivalent as in the following:

brother: brothers (اخوة) *brethren* (of the same society)

genius: geniuses (عباقره) *genii*(الجن)

fish: fishes (اسماك) *fish*(سمك)

index: indexes (ملاحق) *indices* (algebraic sign)

penny: pennies (coins); *pence* (the value)

pea: peas (حبات البازيلاء) *pease* (البازيلاء)

Tests For The Number Of The Noun:

There are three useful tests for the number of the noun:

- A noun is singular if it can take one of these substitute: he, him, she, her, it, this, that. It is plural if it can take as a substitute they, them, these, those.
- The number of a noun may be signalled by a modifier like several, many, this, that, these, thse, fifteen or by a pronoun refernce like his, her, their.
- When the noun functions as subject of a verb, its number is sometimes shown by the form of the verb. it is the singular noun that goes with the /-s3/ form of the verb. If the verb has a verb that does not change for singular and plural, eg, went, one can usually substitute a form that does change (are, play). (Stageberg).
- Markers that indicate dual in an English text are: both, either, neither, when used as a pronoun or a determiner, eg:

both *I like these two books. I think I'll buy both =*

both of them (as a pronoun).

both of my brothers (both + of + plural n or Pro)

both my brothers (both + Plural NP or Pro)

both children (both + Plural NP without the)

I saw you both at the party last night.

(pro + both)

(Leech pp. 66-67)

Either is a pronoun which describes a choice between two alternatives:

There were trees on both sides of the road. (determiner)

You can take either of these books. (pro).

Leech pp. 129-130)

Neither is used as an indefinite pro (neither + of + plural NP)

Neither of these girls.

Neither girl (adeterminer: neither + sing. N).

(Leech pp. 282-283).

Number Agreement

Cantarino pp.23-27

- (1) When the subject refers to persons, there is agreement in number between the subject and the predicate: الولدان مجتهدون ، الولدان مجتهدان ، الولد مجتهد؛ البنات ذاهبات الى المدرسة ، المعلمون مستعدون ، هما قادمان ، هن قادمات ، هم قادمون ، هي قادمة ، انتما قادمتان ، نحن قادمون ، انا قادم
- (2) there is no subject-spredicate agreement in number, when the predicate is a word like قليل ، قريب ، كثير does not agree in number:

is There is no subject predicate agreement in number, when the subject refers to animals or inanimate objects. The predicate (3) ، always singular: قراءاتك متعددة ، لديك كتب كثيرة ، في المزرعة حيوانات كثيرة ، الاشجار مورقة ، المباني مرتفعة ، الجبال شاهقة
- (4) When the independent pronoun نحن refers to two people, the predicate is in the dual: نحن صديقان. When it refers to more than two persons, the predicate is plural: نحن اصدقاء.
- (5) John and David are leaving جون ودافيد ذاهبان

- (6) Collective nouns like *لجنة* ، *وفد* ، *سرب* ، *شعب* ، *فريق* ، *جمهور* ، *حشد* take a singular predicate: *اللجنة مجتمعة* ، *الفريق متحمس* . However, some collective nouns like *اهل* ، *قوم* ،
- (7) collective nouns may be treated as a singular or a plural noun. Therefore, the modifying adjective may be singular or plural:
ركب مسافر وركب مسافرون
ولد نبلاء ولد نبيل
- (8) Broken plurals that refer to *غير العاقل* are followed by either feminine singular or feminine plural adjectives: *شوارع واسعة* ، *شوارع واسعات* ، *انهار جاريات انهار جارية* ، *ايام معدودات* ، *ايام معدودة* ، *ميادين فسيحة* ، *ميادين فسيحات* ،
(Qabawa, p 197)
- (9) Adjectives that are the feminine of *افعل* such as *خضراء* ، *حمراء* ، *خضر* ، *كبار* ، *صغار* ، *كبرى* ، *صغرى* ، *عظمى* ، *عظام* . however, adjectives that have no masculine equivalent *افعل* take a feminine sound plural such as *حسناوات* . Feminine adjectives that have no singular counterpart take a broken plural as *حامل حوامل* .
دول عظمى ، *دول عظام* ، *اشجار خضراء* ، *اشجار خضر* ، *بنات حسناوات* ،
Qabawa p.
- (10) Numeral-noun agreement
two books كتابان
seven books سبعة كتب
ten books عشرة كتب
eleven books احد عشر كتاباً
twenty books عشرون كتاباً
twenty five books خمسة وعشرون كتاباً

Pronouns

English pronouns have singular and plural forms in the first and the third person only, The second person pronoun and relative

pronouns are not marked for singular and plural forms. Arabic makes singular and plural distinctions in the first person pronouns. Second and third person pronouns have singular, dual and plural forms. Thus the English pronoun you has 10 Arabic equivalents in the nominative case (five independent and five pronominal pronouns) and 10 equivalents in the oblique (accusative and genitive cases) (5 independent pronouns in the accusative case and five pronominal pronouns in the oblique (accusative and genitive case): انت انتم: انت انتم. The English pronoun they has 6 Arabic equivalents in the nominative case, and 6 equivalents in the oblique، هما، هم، هن، ا، وا، ن اياهما، اياهم، اياهن؛ هما

هم، هن؛

English shows no number distinction in the relative pronoun. who, whom, that, which are not marked for number. Arabic, on the other hand, has singular, dual and plural forms for relative pronouns. Thus, in the translation of English sentences that contain any of the relative pronoun, the student should make sure that the equivalent Arabic relative pronoun is marked for number. The choice between the singular, dual and plural form depends on the noun preceding the relative pronoun, eg:

English also makes number distinctions in definitive pronouns, eg: one, ones; other, others.

Determiners

English has two articles: the definite article *the* and the indefinite articles *a, an*. Arabic has only a definite article *al-*. There is no Arabic equivalent to the English *a* or *an*. Indefiniteness in Arabic is shown by the deletion of the definite article */al-/* from the noun. However, when a noun that is preceded by *a* or *an* is to be translated into Arabic, the equivalent noun should be used without the article *al-*. Thus *the boy* would be الولد, *a boy* ولد, *the orange* البرتقالة, *an orange* would be برتقالة. The equivalent singular form of the noun is used in such cases as *a*, and *'an'* are used with singular countable nouns.

English demonstratives have singular-plural forms. The Arabic equivalents to the singular form 'this' will be *هذا* هذه , *that* ذلك تلك , *these* هذان هاتان هؤلاء those اولئك depending on the number and gender of the noun following the demonstrative. Gender and dual can be inferred from context.

Verbs

- (1) In English, only the present third person singular is marked for number. It is the form used with singular nouns, with he, she, it and with words for which these pronouns will substitute and with word groups, eg: *He goes, She writes, It eats, The boy runs, One thinks.* In Arabic, verbs are fully inflected for number by a pronominal suffix that is that is an inseparable part of the verb. In addition to the pronominal suffix, a noun or an independent pronoun is used as the subject of the verb. Verbs are marked for singular and plural in the first person, for the singular, dual and plural in the seconds and third person.
- (2) Number is an obligatory category in the verb, when it follows the subject (which is a noun or an independent pronoun). A singular subject takes a singular verb, a dual subject takes a dual verb and a plural subject takes a plural verb. However, the verb does not agree with the subject in number when it precedes it. The singular form of the verb is used when it precedes the subject. eg:

Sub. + V	V + Sub.
الولد جاء	جاء الولد
الولدان جاءا	جاء الولدان
الاولاد يلعبوا	الاولاد يلعبون
الولد يلعب	الولد يلعبان
الولدان يلعبان	الاولاد يلعبون

1.3.2 Translation from Arabic to English

Arabic nouns can be categorized into a group of nouns that take the masculine sound plural suffix or its variants, a group that take

the feminine suffix or any of its variants, and a group that form their plural by the derivation. Some nouns have more than one plural: either several broken plurals, or a sound plural and a broken plural. In English there is no such classification. All nouns form their plural by suffixation. The plural suffix or any of its variants is added to the singular base form. So before translating any Arabic noun, the student should determine the lexical meaning of the Arabic noun, then find out whether the English equivalent is the kind of noun that takes the plural suffix -s, -es, -en, -'s, -ies, 0 suffix, -ves, -en, -ies, the foreign suffixes -i, -ae, -a, -ices, -es, -eaux, whether it is a loan word that has both a regular plural and a foreign plural form, a noun that has the same singular and plural forms, a noun that has an invariable singular form ending in -s, a noun that has a plural invariable form ending in -s; whether it is an uncountable noun that can sometimes take the plural suffix.

Dual Nouns

The English equivalent to Arabic singular nouns is always singular; and to regular Arabic dual nouns ending with the dual prefix or any of its variants should be the plural form of the equivalent noun preceded by two, eg: ولدان *two boys*; كتابين *two books*. However, Arabic has dual nouns that do not refer to two identical individuals or things that are identical in form and meaning. Such invariable dual nouns have two different singular nouns, each of which does not constitute the base form from which the dual was formed. The singular base form for the dual noun ابوان is not اب + اب but الام + الاب and the English equivalent will be father and mother. Arabic has many invariable duals like ابوان and in such case; the English equivalent consists of the two singular nouns that are referred to by the dual form, eg:

القبيلتان	<i>Makkah and Jerusalem</i>
الخافقان	<i>the east and the west</i>
الاصغران	<i>the tongue and the heart</i>
الرافدان	<i>Tigris and the Euphrates</i>

Plural Nouns

Broken plurals differ from sound plurals in that sound plurals refer to several distinct individuals of the same genus, whereas broken plurals refer to a number of individuals viewed collectively. the idea of individuality is being wholly suppressed. They approach English abstract nouns. They are all of the feminine gender. They can only be used as masculine only by. A noun may have several plural forms like صحاري، صحارٍ، صحاري □ usually there is no semantic difference between the various plural forms (Yushmanov p. 43).

Some singular nouns have a sound and a broken plural, sometimes with different meanings. The sound plural refers to paucity, and the broken plural refers to multiplicity. If the sound plural is the only plural, then it is used for paucity and multiplicity at the same time.

تفاحة	apple
تفاحات	(a number of apples)
تفاح	(apples)
شجرة: اشجار	(paucity: a number of trees, a countable noun)
شجر	(trees as opposed to grass, refers to the genus)
رجال رجل:	(men),
رجالات	men of letters)
رجال الشرطة، رجال الامن، رجال الدولة، رجالات الادب، رجالات العلم	
بنت a girl	
بنات	girls

Many singular nouns have several broken plurals sometimes with different meanings. For some nouns, one plural form indicates one meaning of the word; another plural indicates a second meaning. , eg:

بيت	house, a line of verse
بيوت	houses
ابيات	lines of verse
بيوتات الازياء	للتكثير والمبالغة، جمع الجمع

عامل	<i>worker, factor</i>
عمال	<i>workers</i>
عوامل	<i>factors</i>
قول	<i>saying</i>
اقوال	<i>testimony, proverbs, sayings</i>
اقاويل	<i>rumors</i>
عين	<i>eye, spring, spy</i>
عيون	<i>eyes, springs, spies</i>
اعيان	<i>paucity: eminent people</i>
اعين	<i>paucity, eyes</i>
بحر	<i>sea, one who has wide knowledge in something, meter of poetry</i>
بحار	<i>(seas),</i>
ابحر	<i>(paucity),</i>
بحور	<i>(metres of poetry)</i>
شباب	<i>young man</i>
شبان	<i>young men,</i>
شباب	<i>Youth</i>

⌘ Some broken plural patterns denote paucity, others denote multiplicity (abundance). Plurals of paucity refer to persons and things between 3-10, whereas plurals of multiplicity are used for eleven to an endless number of persons or things. There are four patterns for plurals of paucity:

احرف ، ايد ، اذرع ، اوجه ، انفس ، (افعال)
اجداد ، ابيات ، ايام ، اصوات ، آلام ، اجسام ، (افعلة)
(ازمنة ، اعمدة ، انية ، ادعية ، أنمة)
(اخوة ، جيرة ، صبية ، شيخة ،)

The type of plural should be noticed carefully as that would have a

صاحب: friend, companion, owner of)

صحب: collective noun

صحابة: prophet mohammad's friends

صحبّة: companions

اصحاب: paucity: a number of friends, few friends
بحث: research paper
(بحوث) many research papers)
ابحاث:)paucity: a number of research papers)
ماء: (water, little, too much):
مياه (waters),
امواه (paucity)
ماء جارٍ ، ماء مالح ، ماء عذب ، ماء الزهر ، ماء المطر ، مياه الامطار ،
المياه الجوفية ، المياه الاقليمية ، مياه البحر ، مياه النيل

Collective nouns

collective nouns like سرب ، وفد ، لجنة ، هيئة ، مجلس ، فريق ،
لفيف ، قطيع ، باقة

Pronouns

is The English equivalent to Arabic أنا ، تـ ، أ I, نحن is we;
هما ، هم ، هن ، هي is she; هو is he; انتـ ، انتـ ، انتـ is you; انتم ، انتم ، انتن
they.

Determiners

Since Arabic has no equivalent to the English indefinite article a or an, then, when translating Arabic nouns into English, the student should use the indefinite articles *a* or *an* before singular indefinite nouns. The indefinite article *a* should be used before a noun that begins with a consonant, and *an* should be used before a noun that begins with a vowel.

I bought a book اشتريت كتابًا

This is an orange هذه برتقالة

هذا هذه ذلك هذان تلك هذان هذين هاتين هؤلاء اولئك
When translating Arabic demonstratives هذان ، هذين ، هاتين ، هؤلاء ، اولئك into English, the student should note that there is only one English equivalent to the two singular Arabic forms, and one plural form to the dual and plural Arabic demonstratives. Thus, the equivalent to هذان ، هذين ، هاتين is this; to ذلك ، تلك is

that; to هذين ، هذان ، هؤلاء is these; and to هاتان هؤلاء هاتين is those.

Subject-verb agreement

In An English translation, the student should note that English singular subjects take singular verbs and plural subjects take plural verbs. In the present tense ,if the noun is singular, the verb takes the suffix -s, if the noun is plural, the verb takes 0 suffix. The modals will, shall, can, may, must..ets do not have singular and plural forms. Verb to do, to have and to be have singular and plural forms. Verbs in the past tense do not have singular and plural forms.

- The headword is the noun that marks plural in the subject. The head noun is not always next to the verb, eg:
- Singular nouns ending in -s take singular verbs, eg: news, measles
mathematics, checkers, eg:
Mathematics is difficult.
- Some plural nouns that do not end in the plural suffix -s take a plural verb, e. g.: men, women, children.
Many women come to
- Uncountable nouns take singular verbs, eg;
The tea is hot.
- When Collective nouns such as family, team, committee are used as subject, sometimes they are followed by a singular verb and sometimes they are followed by a plural verb:
- When the subject consists of two or more items joined by and, the subject is plural and is followed by a plural verb:
Fatma and Leyla go
- When a plural subject is preceded by a quantifier like some, any, either, neither and none, the subject sometimes takes a singular noun and sometimes a plural noun, eg:

- When the subject is preceded by number, majority, plenty, it takes a plural verb, eg:

Leech pp. 33-35.

Noun-adjective agreement

English adjectives are not inflected for number. So, when translating Arabic dual and plural adjectives, the English equivalent adjective is unmarked regardless of the number of the noun modified by the adjective.

2. Gender

Gender is a set of class, or set of classes, governing the forms of nouns, verbs, pronouns, adjectives and articles; specifically, in English and Arabic, the masculine and the feminine gender. Gender terms and forms do not always refer to biological gender. The terms used to indicate gender vary, as in the Dutch common gender or the animate or inanimate gender of certain American Indian languages.

In English, Gender is indicated in the third person singular personal pronouns as the feminine '*she*', the masculine '*he*', and the neuter '*it*'. The third person singular may or may not match sexual gender, as references to a ship as '*she*' indicates, or to '*he*' as an indefinite person.

2.1 English Gender Morphology

(Stageberg)

English makes gender distinctions. Where they are made, the connection between the biological category 'sex' and the grammatical category 'gender' is very close. The English gender system is logical or physical, based primarily on sex. Male persons are masculine, female persons are feminine. Some animals are included in this gender system (cow, tigress) and some persons may be excluded (*baby*). Things and some animals are in the gender category NEUTER. There are few trivial exceptions where things are referred to as it until it starts acting like a person. This system of classification results in one large class of neuter nouns and two relatively small classes of masculine and feminine nouns.

- Gender distinctions are not made in the article, verb, or adjective.
- Some pronouns are gender sensitive (the personal '*he*', '*she*', '*it*' and the relative '*who*' and '*which*', but others are not (*they*, *you*, *some*, *these*...etc.). The English pronoun makes gender distinctions. Only in the third person singular forms. *He* (masculine), *she* (feminine), *it* (neuter). **The it** can refer to certain creatures of either sex- *baby*, *cat*- and to sexless things- *car*, *beauty*, *book*. The others (*I*, *we*, *you*, *they*) are unmarked.

- Some personal m/f nouns are morphologically marked for gender. English has a small number of nouns with feminine derivational suffixes. A feminine morpheme that has a number of variants is added to a masculine form or to a base morpheme. The distribution of the feminine suffix and its variants is as follows: the suffixes *-ess*, *-ette*, *-a*, *-oine* and *-ester*. All but one of these feminizing suffixes (*-ster*) are of foreign origin.

<i>masculine</i>	<i>feminine</i>	<i>masculine</i>	<i>feminine</i>
duke	duchess	god	goddess
hero	heroine	emperor	empress
bridegroom	bride	host	hostess
steward	stewardess	waiter	waitress
widower	widow	usher	usherette
fiance	fiancee	comedian	comedienne
henry	Henrietta	George	Georgina

- the variant *---* is sometimes used as a 'gender marker', e.g.:

<i>masculine</i>	<i>feminine</i>
<i>boy friend</i>	<i>girl friend</i>
<i>man student</i>	<i>woman student</i>
<i>man-servant</i>	<i>maid-servant</i>
<i>male relative</i>	<i>female relative</i>

- the variant *---* is frequently used as a sex marker, when a given activity is largely male or female, e.g.:

nurse: male nurse
engineer: woman engineer

- The variant *---* is used as a gender marker for any animate noun when they are felt to be relevant.

<i>masculine</i>	<i>feminine</i>
<i>he-goat</i>	<i>she-goat</i>
<i>male-frog</i>	<i>female frog</i>

2.1 Arabic Gender Morphology

Arabic makes gender distinctions in nouns, adjectives, verbs, pronouns, relative pronouns and demonstratives. There are two genders: masculine and feminine. Persons, things and animals may be masculine or feminine. The Arabic gender system is not logical or physical except in persons and animals. Male persons are masculine, female persons are feminine. **Things may be masculine or feminine.** The connection between the biological category 'sex' and the grammatical category 'gender' is not always very close. Arabic nouns have inherent gender with important grammatical consequences. This system of classification results in two large classes of masculine and feminine nouns.

Nouns and Adjectives

All Arabic nouns have inherent grammatical gender. Many nouns are not marked for gender, but they have a consistent gender association, just as the marked nouns do. Nouns referring to persons and animals have a grammatical gender and physical sex as well. There is no discernible logic in the gender assignment of any particular noun; but whatever the class (masculine or feminine), the grammatical consequences regularly appear in the rest of the sentence in the agreement of noun-adjective, noun-verb, noun demonstrative, and noun-relative pronoun in gender.

Numeral-noun agreement.

Like nouns, adjectives are either masculine or feminine. However, adjectives are morphologically marked for gender. **Arabic has noun-adjective agreement.**

The singular feminine adjective/noun suffix {-at} is added to the singular masculine base form of the noun or adjective to convert it to feminine. The singular feminine adjective/noun suffix {-at} has a number of feminine adjective/noun allomorphs. The distribution and meaning of the singular feminine adjective suffix {-at} is the same as the feminine noun suffix {-at}.

- The singular feminine/adjective noun suffix {-at} is added to the base form of the singular masculine adjective or noun to change it into feminine. The feminine suffix /-at/ is pronounced [-ah] before

a pause, e.g.:

mas.	fem.
طالب	طالبة
معلم	معلمة
صافي	صافية
خبير	خبيرة

- The singular feminine allomorphs {-aa?} or /ى/ are added to base form of some nouns or adjectives. The addition of those two suffixes are accompanied by the deletion of the initial /?a-/, e.g.:

كبرى	اكبر	بيضاء	ابيض
اولى	اول	صماء	اصم

- Dual nouns and adjectives are either masculine or feminine as the dual suffixes {-aani} and {-ayni} are added to both the masculine and feminine base forms of the noun, e.g.:

طالبان	طالب
طالبتين	طالبة
مجتهدين	مجتهدان
خبيرين	خبيران

- The sound plural feminine adjective noun allomorph /-aat/ is added to the feminine singular base form of the adjective or noun to convert it to sound feminine plural, e.g.: مجتهدات طالبات ، معلمات ، ، خبيرات / is deleted, /-?/ changes to /-w/, and /ى/ changes to /y/ before the feminine plural suffix as in : مجتهدات كبيرات ، بيضاوات ،

- Some nouns are not marked for gender. Some nouns have a dual gender (can be considered masculine or feminine):
سبيل ، طريق ، سكنين، سوق، لسان ، ذراع ، فرس ، حية ، شاة ، دابة ، سخلة ، ،
عناق ،

- 0 gender suffix is used with some adjectives and nouns derived after 12 patterns (have a personal dual gender) such as: عدل ، رضا ،
دون حسب دون مائة الف
لُعبة فُعلة
ضحكة فُعلة

عجوز	صبور	صدوق	شكور	حقود	نفور	ظلوم	فِعْوَل
							فَعِيل
							فَعَالَة
							فَعَال
							فَعْل
							مَفْعَال
							مَفْعَل
							مَفْعِيل
							فَعْل
							فَعْل

- **0 feminine suffix is used with few adjectives** (few adjectives have only a masculine form), such as:

رجل ملتجٍ رجل عقيم

- **0 masculine is used with few adjectives** (adjectives have only a feminine form), such as:

حسناء ، عاقر ، مرضع ، حبلى ، ضامر طالق

These feminine adjectives may take the feminine suffix -at.

Number-noun agreement

Noun-adjective agreement

Verbs

The Arabic verb is a combination of a verb part and a pronominal suffix or prefix. The pronominal suffix and prefix are a person--number-gender-tense-aspect-voice-mood marker. The base form of the verb is the third person masculine singular as in huwa katab. The feminine and masculine genders are denoted by a pronominal suffix in the perfect tense and by a combination of a prefix and pronominal suffix each of which has a number of variants depending on the person and tense-aspect paradigms.

The distribution of the feminine pronominal suffix and its variants in the perfect verb are as follows: /-at/ is used with the third person feminine singular hiya and dual humaa before the number suffix -aa as in hiya katab-at, humaa katab-at-aa; /-ti/ is used with the

second person feminine singular ?anti katab-ti; /-tunna/ is used with the second person feminine plural ?antunna katab-tunna; /-na/ is used with the third person feminine plural hunna katab-na.

The distribution of the masculine pronominal suffix and its variants in the perfect tense are as follows: /-ta / is used with the second person masculine singular as in ?anta katab-ta ; /-tum / is used with the second person masculine plural as in ?antum katab-tum, the masculine verb suffix /-uu/ is used with the third person masculine plural in hum katab-uu .

In the case of imperfect verbs, the distribution of the feminine prefix and the feminine pronominal confix and their variants are as follows: /ta-/ and 0 are used with the third person feminine singular hiya and the third person masculine dual humaa as in: hiya ta-ktub; humaa ta-ktub-aa-n; /-ii/ and 0 are used with the second person feminine singular ?anti: ?anti ta-ktub-ii-n; /-na/ and 0 are used with the second person feminine plural ?antunna and the third person feminine plural hunna as in: (?antunna ta-ktub-na, hunna ya-ktub-na;

In the case of imperfect masculine verbs, the distribution of the masculine prefix and the masculine pronominal suffix and their variants are as follows: /ta-/ and 0 are used with the second person masculine singular ?anta or the second person masculine plural ?antum as in: ?anta ta-ktub, ?antum ta-ktubuun; /ya-/ and 0 are used with the third person masculine singular huwa, and dual humaa as in huwa ya-ktub, humaa ya-ktub-aa-n; /ya-/ and /-uu/ are used with the third person masculine plural hum as in hum ya-ktub-uu-n.

In the imperative mood, the distribution of the feminine suffix and its variants is as follows: /-ii/ is used with the second person feminine singular ?anti as in uktub-ii; /-na/ is used in the second person feminine plural ?antunna as in: uktub-na; /-uu/ is used in the second person masculine plural ?antum as in: uktubuu; 0 suffix is used in the second person masculine singular ?anta and dual ?antumaa, e.g.:uktub, uktubaa.

Table	Gender prefixes and suffixes in verbs
pronoun	gender past present imperative

?naa	m/f	katab-tu	?a-ktub
nahnu	m/f	katab-na	na-ktub
?anta	m	katab-ta	ta-ktub uktub
?anti	f	katab-ti	ta-ktub-ii-n uktub-ii
?antuma	m	katab-tum-aa	ta-ktub-aa-n uktub-aa
?antuma	f	katab-tum-aa	ta-ktub-aa-n uktub-aa
?antum	m	katab-tum	ta-ktub-uu-n uktub-uu
?antunna	f	katab-tu-nna	ta-ktub-na uktub-na
huwa	m	katab	ya-ktub
hiya	f	katab-at	ta-ktub
humaa	m	katab-aa	ya-ktub-aa-n
humaa	f	katab-at-aa	ta-ktub-aa-n
hum	m	katab-uu	ya-ktub-uu-n
hunna	f	katab-na	ya-ktub-na

Pronouns

Arabic personal pronouns are gender sensitive. Gender distinctions are made in the independent and pronominal suffixes and prefixes, in the nominative, accusative and genitive cases and in the second and the third person singular and plural forms only.

Relative Pronouns:

Arabic relative pronouns are also gender sensitive. Gender distinctions are made in the singular, dual and plural forms. The feminine plural relative pronoun has three forms. the following are the masculine and the feminine forms of the relative pronouns.

<i>masculine</i>	<i>feminine</i>
الذي	التي
الذان	اللتان
الذين	اللتين
الذين	اللواتي اللاتي اللاتي

Demonstratives

Arabic makes gender distinction in demonstrative pronouns. Gender distinctions are made in the singular, dual and plural forms.

The following are the masculine and the feminine forms of the demonstrative pronouns.

<i>masculine</i>	<i>feminine</i>
هذا	هذه
ذلك	تلك
ذاك	تلك
هذان	هاتان
هذين	هاتين
ذاتك	تاتك
هؤلاء	هؤلاء
اولئك	اولئك

2.2 Translation from English

The occurrence of inherent gender classes in Arabic is an instant of obligatory choice in Arabic compared with zero choice in English. Unlike English, where gender choices are somewhat logical, with limited grammatical consequences, Arabic requires a choice with every noun, adjective, verb, relative pronoun, demonstrative and numeral used. The consequences of gender categories are present in almost every sentence in Arabic.

- most nouns have a personal dual gender, e.g.: *artist* فنانة , *professor* استاذة , *cook* طبخة , *writer* كاتبة , *doctor* كاتبة , *reader* قارئة , *engineer* مهندسة , *player* لاعب , *parent* والدة , *teacher* معلمة .
- In translating English personal nouns that have no overt marking for gender, the Arabic equivalent to a masculine noun should be masculine and to a feminine noun should be feminine *lad* ولد , *lass*; *brother* اخ , *sister* اخت ; *sir* سيدي , *madam* , *king* ملك , *queen* ملكة ; *monk* راهب , *nun* راهبة ; *man* رجل , *woman* امرأة .
- In translating English nouns referring to higher animals that have no overt marking for gender, the Arabic equivalent to a masculine noun should be masculine and to a feminine noun. *Duck* ذكر البط , *doe* انثى البط ; *bull* ثور , *cow* بقرة ; *cock* ديك , *hen*

دجاجة; *dog* كلب , *bitch* كلبة ; *lion* اسد , *lioness* لبؤة. The student should observe that for some animals, the Arabic equivalent has the feminine suffix -at, a sex marker is used or a lexical item referring to the female is used.

- In translating names of countries, the Arabic equivalent is always feminine, whether they are used as geographical or economic units. In sports, the teams representing countries are masculine in Arabic.
- Ships and other entities towards which an affectionate attitude is expressed, a personal substitute is used.
- Arabic adjectives are regularly marked for gender.
- Personal pronouns furnish the basis for classifying nouns into different substitute groups, i.e., nouns are put into different classes according to the personal pronouns which can be substituted for them. Knowing the membership of a noun in one class or another is useful in grammatical analysis. We have already used the *it* and *they* substitute groups to settle the question of number.

<i>Example</i>	<i>Pro. substitutes</i>
<i>brother, uncle, boy</i>	<i>he</i>
<i>sister, aunt, girl</i>	<i>she</i>
<i>car, tree, room</i>	<i>it</i>
<i>teacher, assistant</i>	<i>he/she</i>
<i>bull, coq</i>	<i>he/it</i>
<i>cow, cat</i>	<i>she/it</i>
<i>baby, bird</i>	<i>he/she/it</i>
<i>team,</i>	<i>it/they</i>
<i>everybody, one</i>	<i>he/she/they</i>
<i>math, gold</i>	<i>it (no plural)</i>
<i>herd, scales</i>	<i>they (no singular)</i>

All these classes except the tenth have *they* as a substitute for the plural forms. It must be understood that *he*, *she*, and *they*

are meant to include their inflected forms him, her, them. Class membership depends on meaning and as meaning shifts in the course of events, so does membership in the substitute groups.

(stageberg)

Demonstratives

Relative pronouns

Numerals

2.3 Translation from Arabic

In Arabic, there is a full set of distinctions for PERSON and NUMBER, a partial set of CASE distinctions, specifically marked GENDER forms and a LEVEL OF FORMALITY category in the form of the second person. In translating a text from Arabic into English, gender is observed and not observed in the following cases:

- The English equivalent to most Arabic nouns will not be marked for gender, as most English nouns have a personal dual gender, e.g.: قارئ *reader*; فنان *artist*, *cook*, كاتبة *writer*; طبيب *doctor*; والد *parent*; مهندسة *engineer*; لاعبة *player*; معلمة *teacher*. The translation student should use a sex marker like *female*, *woman*, *man*, *boy*, *girl*, when a particular activity is largely male or female, with any animate noun when felt relevant, e.g.: طالبات *female students*;

Masculine

boy friend
man student
man-servant
male relative
nurse male
engineer
he-goat
male-frog

Feminine

girl friend
woman student
maid-servant
female relative
nurse
woman engineer
she-goat
female frog

- The English equivalent should be morphologically marked for gender. in a small number of nouns such as *دوقة duchess*; *بطلة heroine*; *امبراطورة emperess*; *عريس bridegroom*; *مضيفة hostess*; *stewardess*; *نادلة waitress*; *ارمل widower*; *ارملة widow* *قهرمانة usherette*; *خطيبة fiancée*; *ممثلة كوميدية comedienne*.
- When translating names of countries, the use of gender depends on their use in the context in which they occur. As geographical units, they should be treated as inanimate (referred to by the pronoun it). As political or economic units, the names of countries are feminine (referred to by the pronoun she). In sports, the teams representing countries can be referred to as personal collective nouns (referred to by the pronoun they).
- When translating nouns referring to ships and other entities towards which an affectionate attitude is expressed, a personal substitute is used (referred to by the pronoun she).
- Only in the third person singular he (human masculine), she (human feminine), it for objects and animals.

Gender is not observed in adjectives. The equivalent adjective is always singular. *اوفياء faithful*, *خضراء green*, *اخضر green*, *خضر green*; *امريكي امريكية* ، *امريكان امريكيات*; *اشقراء اشقر شقراء blond*; *شقراوات شقور اشقر شقراء American*;

- Gender is not observed in numeral. There is only one English equivalent for feminine and masculine numerals, e.g., *خمس بنات five girls*; *خمسة اولاد five boys*.
- Gender is not observed in the relative pronoun. The equivalent to *التي اللذان اللتان الذين اللاتي اللواتي الذي* is one of the following English relative pronouns: *who, which, whose, that*.
- Gender is not observed in verbs at all.

Agreement:

- when the subject refers to persons, there is agreement in gender between the subject and the predicate: **الاولاد مجتهدون ، الولدان مجتهدان ، الولد مجتهد؛ البنات ذاهبات الى المدرسة ، المعلمون مستعدون ، هما قادمان ، هن قادمات ، هم قادمون ، هي قادمة ، انتما قادمتان ، نحن معلمون ، نحن معلمات ، نحن معلمان ، نحن معلمتان ، انا قادمة ، انا قادم**
- When the subject (is a broken plural, broken plurals are feminine). There is subject predicate agreement in gender, **قراءاتك متعددة ، لديك كتب كثيرة ، في المزرعة حيوانات كثيرة ، الاشجار مورقة ، المباني مرتفعة ، الجبال شاهقة**
- When the independent pronoun **نحن** refers to two people, the predicate is in the dual: **نحن صديقتان ، نحن صديقان**. When it refers to more than two persons, the predicate is plural: **نحن صديقات ، نحن اصدقاء. انا معلم ، انا معلمة**

John and David are leaving
جون ودافيد ذاهبان فاطمة
وليلي ذاهبتان محمد وليلي
ذاهبان

- **حشد ، جمهور ، فريق ، شعب ، سرب ، وفد ،** Collective nouns like **اللجنة مجتمعة، الفريق متحمس** However, **لجنة قوم ، اهل ،** some collective nouns like

collective nouns may be treated as a singular or a plural noun.
therefore, the modifying adjective is masculine:

وركب مسافرون ركب مسافر

وولد نبلاء ولد نبيل

- **broken plurals that refer to غير العاقل are followed by either واسعة ، شوارع** **feminine singular or feminine plural adjectives** **شوارع** ، انهار جاربات انهار جاربة ، ايام معدودات ، ايام معدودة ، ميادين

فسيحات ، ميادين فسيحة
(Qabawa, p 197)

- Adjectives that are the feminine of افعال such as ، خضراء ، حمراء ، حمر ، خضر ، كبار ، صغار ، صغرى عظمى ، كبرى ، عظمى However, adjectives that have no masculine equivalent افعال take a feminine sound plural such as حسناوات . Feminine adjectives that have no singular counterpart take a broken plural as حامل حوامل ، دول عظمى ، دول عظام ، اشجار خضراء ، اشجار خضر ، بنات حسناوات Qabawa p.

3. Person Morphology

Person is the classification of pronouns according to who is speaking, or 'first person', the person spoken to or 'second person', or the person spoken about or 'third person'. The first person in the singular denotes the speaker. In the plural it denotes the speaker plus anybody else, one or more. The second person denotes the person or persons spoken to. The third person denotes those other than the speaker or those spoken to.(Stageberg).

3.1 English Person Morphology

English personal pronouns are seven in number. Each of them occurs in a paradigm of four forms. The paradigms are personal nominative, personal accusative, determiner possessive and nominal possessive as in: (I, me, my, mine). Only personal, possessive and reflexive pronouns have distinctions of person. see Table ().

3.2 Arabic Person Morphology

Arabic personal pronouns are 13 in number. Each of them occurs in a paradigm of six forms. The paradigms are two personal independent forms (nominative and accusative), one pronominal prefix form and three pronominal suffix forms (nominative, accusative and genitive). The pronominal suffix is added to verbs in the perfect tense. In the imperfect tense, the pronominal suffix is combined with a pronominal prefix. The independent pronouns, the imperfect prefix and the pronominal suffix have separate forms for first, second and third person. see Table ().

3.3 Translation

In Arabic, there is a full set of distinctions for PERSON and NUMBER, a partial set of CASE distinctions, specifically marked GENDER forms and a LEVEL OF FORMALITY category in the form of the second person.

Set of third person pronouns.

Set of second person pronouns.

Separate forms used with prepositions appear only in the group of pronouns. There is no formal distinction to mark any different functions (reflexive, indirect object, direct object) of the with-verb group.

Number and gender distinctions are maintained for subject/object, attached and independent, and with-preposition and with-verb forms, in indirect and reflexive. The English pronoun system is simpler, with distinctions for number, case and gender distinctions. Gender distinctions occur only in the third person singular forms. The others are unmarked. Arabic has 15 pronouns corresponding to the English pronoun 'you'. All the other English pronouns have 3 Arabic equivalents. The student has to pay attention to pronouns so that she will understand the forms and develop a feeling for the categories they express. The relative placement of the pronoun forms in the sentence requires special attention.

When translating English and Arabic pronouns, translation students should note the following:
Absence of the nominative independent pronoun from an Arabic sentence does not mean that the Arabic sentence has no subject. The pronominal suffix which is an inseparable part of the verb is actually the subject and the equivalent English sentence should of course contain a subject pronoun. Arabic sentences that contain a nominative independent pronoun have the subject twice. Thus *انا كتبت ، كتبت* are the same. In *كتبت* we understand that the doer of the action is 'I'. Sometimes, the independent pronoun is used for more emphasis. It is preferable not to use nominative independent pronouns in Arabic verbal sentences.

The translation of the accusative independent pronouns might cause some trouble. The difference between the accusative independent pronouns and the accusative pronominal suffixes is that former is used in position of a direct object

<i>I gave you the book</i>	اعطيتك الكتاب
<i>I gave it to you</i>	اعطيتك اياه

I gave it to her
I gave them to you

اعطيتها اياه
اعطيتك اياها

Accusative independent pronouns are used (in thematic fronting) when the object is placed initially for thematic prominence (when the object is the thematic element and it is placed before the verb) as in
اياك نعبد

The English equivalent should have a thematic fronting (the object pronoun should be placed initially:

You, we worship.

4. Case Morphology

Case is the relationship of a noun, pronoun, or adjective to other words in a grammatical construction, shown by word order or by prepositions in inflected languages and by change in word form in inflected languages.

4.1 English Case Morphology

In the subjective case, nouns and pronouns are used in the functions of subject of the verb and nominative complement. In the accusative case, nouns and pronouns mainly function as objects of verbs and of the preposition.

Nouns

English nouns have a two case system: the unmarked common case (boy) and the marked genitive case (boy's book). The function of the common case can be seen in the syntactic relations of the noun phrase (word order) (subject, object).

English nouns are marked for the category POSSESSION by an inflectional suffix S2. The possessive suffix has the variants /-s/ and /-'/ . The pronunciation of the possessive suffix is identical with that of the plural suffix S1:

<i>cat</i>	<i>cat's</i>	/-s/
<i>dog</i>	<i>dog's</i>	/-z/
<i>boy</i>	<i>boy's</i>	/-z/
<i>judge</i>	<i>judge's</i>	/-iz/
<i>church</i>	<i>church's</i>	/-iz/

The possessive suffix /-s/ is added at the end of the singular noun not ending in s as in John's book.

The apostrophe /-'/ is added after the plural s in plural nouns as, *girls' room*. When the nouns are alike in the singular and the plural, the apostrophe precedes the s in the singular and follows it in the plural, e.g.: *sheep's, sheeps'*

A 0 possessive suffix is used with polysyllabic Greek names *Socretes'*, and with fixed expressions like for *goodness' sake*. Some singular nouns ending in the sound of s or z, take the s; others do not; as *James's bag*, *Misses's department*, *Moses' book*, *Jesus' sake*.

An '*of- structure*' is used as a variant of the /-'s/ morpheme. The possessive suffix is used with animate nouns and the '*of-structure*' is used with inanimate nouns; e.g.: *the cat's tail* but *the branch of the tree*.

Pronouns

English pronouns have only two cases: common (*somebody*) and genitive (*somebody's*). But six pronouns represent a three case system: nominative, accusative and genitive. The nominative pronouns are those used in the functions of subject of the verb and of nominative complement. The pronouns in the accusative case are those which function mainly as objects of the verb and of the preposition. Prenominal pronouns occur before nouns and substitutional possessive occur as substitutes for nouns.

- **Nominative case:** *I, we, you, he, she, it, they, wh, one, ones, other, others*
- **Accusative case:** *me, us, you, him, her, it, them, who, whom, One, ones, other, others.*
- **Genitive case (prenominal possessive):** *my, our, your, his, her, it's, their, whose, ones, ones', other's, others'.*
- **Genitive case (substitutional possessive):** *mine, ours, yours, his, hers, its, theirs.*

4.2 Arabic Case Morphology

Arabic nouns have a three case system: marked nominative, marked accusative and marked genitive. The function of the nominative case, the accusative case and the genitive case can be seen in the syntactic relations of the noun phrase and in case endings (case markers). Singular, dual, sound masculine plural, sound feminine plural and broken plural forms take special case endings. Those case endings are summarized in the table () below.

Pronouns

Personal independent pronouns, pronominal suffixes and relative pronouns represent a three case system: nominative, accusative and genitive. see Table ().

Relative and Demonstrative Pronouns

Relative and demonstrative pronouns show case distinctions only in the dual. The singular and plural forms are uninflected. the following are the nominative, accusative and genitive forms:

Nominative: اللذان اللتان ، هذان هاتان

Accusative: اللذين اللتين ، هذين هاتين

Genitive: اللذين اللتين ، هذين هاتين

4.3 Implications for Translation

(Stageberg) (No. 7-13 from Leech pp 370-372)

In Arabic, there is a full set of distinctions for PERSON and NUMBER, a partial set of CASE distinctions, specifically marked GENDER forms and a LEVEL OF FORMALITY category in the form of the second person.

Set of third person pronouns.

set of second person pronouns.

Separate forms used with prepositions appear only in the group of pronouns. there is no formal distinction to mark any different functions (reflexive, indirect object, direct object) of the with-verb group.

Number and gender distinctions are maintained for subject/object, attached and independent, and with-preposition and with-verb forms, in indirect and reflexive.

The English pronoun system is simpler, with distinctions for number, case and gender distinctions. Gender distinctions occur only in the third person singular forms. The others are unmarked. Arabic has 15 pronouns corresponding to the English pronoun 'you'. All the

other English pronouns have 3 Arabic equivalents. The student has to pay attention to pronouns so that she will understand the forms and develop a feeling for the categories they express. The relative placement of the pronoun forms in the sentence requires special attention.

- It must be remembered that the verbal inflectional suffix /-z/, the noun plural inflectional suffix /-z/ and the noun possessive inflectional suffix /-z/ are the same. These three homophonous /-z/s are allomorphs of three different morphemes. To be allomorphs of the same morpheme, each allomorph must have the same meaning. (Stageberg). In the spoken language we cannot always be sure which s morpheme we are hearing, because the possessive and the plural have identical forms /-s/, /-z/. and /-iz/- except in the case of irregular plurals. If you were to hear /the boyz bal/, it could mean the boy's ball or the boys' ball.
- When 's is used after characters, it merely denotes plurality and not possession, e.g.: *the x's and the z's; the 1980's, UN's*. 's is also a contraction of is as in *Mary's*, i. e., *Mary is*. (Covell).
- In an Arabic translation, the student should pay attention to the case endings of nouns especially dual and sound plural nouns because singular, sound feminine plurals and broken plurals are marked for case by short vowels which are often omitted in a written text. Dual nouns take the case ending /-aa/ or /-aan/ in the nominative case; /-ayn/ or /-ay/ in the accusative and genitive cases. Sound masculine plurals take the case ending /-uun/ or /-uu/ in the nominative case; /-iin/ or /-ii/ in the accusative and genitive cases.
- In translating English genitive structures into Arabic, the Arabic equivalent is a noun followed by an appositioned noun, whether the possessive suffix 's or the of-structure is used.
The teacher's book. كتاب المعلم
Both teacher's book كتاب المعلمين

The teachers' book كتاب المعلمين
 ُThe branch of the tree الشجرة
 The boy's hands الولد غصن
 The school's teachers المدرسة يدا
 معلمو
 ُI saw the school's teachers رأيت معلمي المدرسة

When the noun is dual or plural, the case endings /-aa/, /-ay/, /-uu/ and /-ii/ should be used. if the appositd noun is dual or a sound masculine plural, the case endings /-ayn/ and /iin/ should be used.

- in translating the English double genitives, the preposition li should be used before the appositd noun:

a friend of my sister's صديقة لأختي
a friend of mine صديقة لي ، احدى صديقاتي
some books of John's بعض كتب جون

- In translating English possessives that that are followed by a superlative or ordinal, the Arabic equivalent contain the preposition fii or li, e.g:

The world's largest city. اكبر مدينة في العالم
Africa's first railway. اول سكة حديد في افريقيا
John's first novel اول رواية لجون ، اول روايات جون

Leech

- Sometimes, the noun that follows the possessive is omitted from the English sentence. In the Arabic translation, the omitted noun should be restored. a noun that refers to someone's house as بيت or place of work as محل ، دكان ، عيادة can be used , e.g.:

Your grades are better than John's. درجاتك افضل من درجات جون
I went to the doctor's. ذهبت الي عيادة الطبيب
I went to my uncle's. ذهبت الي بيت عمي
I went to the grocer's. ذهبت الي البقالة (محل البقال
 Leech

- When the possessive is much shorter than the following phrase, The head noun of that phrase should be used as the Arabic head noun, the possessive noun should be the apposited noun followed by the rest of the phrase:

The town's increasing problems of crime and violence.

مشكلات الجريمة والعنف المتزايدة في المدينة
مشكلات الجريمة والعنف المتزايدة الخاصة/المتعلقة بالمدينة

Leech

- The Arabic equivalent for the possessive determiner and the possessive pronoun is the same, e.g.:

This is my book. هذا كتابي ، هذا الكتاب لي

This book is mine هذا كتابي ، هذا الكتاب لي

ُThis one is mine. هذه لي

- In English, own is added before a possessive determiner to give it emphasis. The Arabic equivalent is the same as in 10:

She always washes her own clothes

دائما تغسل ملابسها

- When the English possessive form refers back to the subject, no noun is used after the possessive determiner. In Arabic a noun should be used after the possessive determiner, as it is a clitic pronoun that cannot stand alone :

I brought my own book, but he forgot his.

لقد احضرت كتابي ولكنه نسي كتابه

- When a person is the subject, a possessive determiner is used to refer to his, or her parts of the body, but when it is the object and is followed by the part of the body, the is used. The Arabic equivalent does not use al- in the second case; it uses a possessive determiner instead, e.g.:

He hurt his arm. لقد جرح ذراعه

He hit the boy on the head. لقد ضرب الولد على رأسه

- In Arabic, the genitive is expressed by a noun followed by an apposited noun. Arabic makes no distinction between animate and inanimate apposited nouns. There are two English

equivalents this structure: an -'s genitive and an of-genitive. The possessive suffix -'s should be used with animate nouns and the 'of-structure' with inanimate nouns; e.g.:

ذيل القطّة	<i>the cat's tail</i>
غصن الشجرة	<i>the branch of the tree.</i>

5. Tense and Aspect

Tense is the inflection on a verb with reference to the time of the utterance. Tense is the correspondence between the form of the verb and our concept of time. Aspect is a term used to describe the state of verb action as beginning, in progress, completed, etc. Since the expression of time present and past cannot be considered separately from aspect, time and aspect will be combined. (Quirk)

5.1 English Tense and Aspect

There are two tenses in English: past and present. There is no obvious future tense corresponding to the time/tense relation for present and past. The future is denoted by means of modal auxiliaries as in (a), semi auxiliaries as in (c), by simple present forms as in (b) or progressive forms as in (c) and (d):

- a. *I will go to school. (modal auxiliary)*
- b. *He leaves for London tomorrow. (simple present)*
- c. *It is going to rain.*
- d. *The train is leaving tonight.*

English has the following aspects: progressive, and perfective. Aspect is shown by the use of suffixes {-ing} and {-ed} and/or auxiliary words be and have as in:

- a. *are running*
- b. *has played.*

English tense and aspect are summarized below.

The Present

In the Simple Present, only the third person singular is marked for tense by the suffix {-S3}, e.g.: I play, we play, you play, they play, he plays, she plays, it plays. The morpheme {-S3} has the same allomorphs in the same distribution as the plural suffix {-S1} and possessive suffix {-S2} of the noun: /-s/, /-z/, /-iz/, as in sleeps, brushes, changes, raises.

The majority of modal auxiliaries are said to have tense. *Can, may, shall, will, must* are used in the present tense. They precede the main verb and give it special shades of meaning like futurity, volition, possibility, probability, permission, and necessity. The auxiliaries *can, may, shall, will, and must* are not inflected for tense, e.g.: *I can, we can; you can; they can, he can, she can, it can.*

The three quasi auxiliaries *be, do, have* often function as auxiliaries. The present form of *Have* and *do* are only inflected for third person singular nouns, and words for which the third person singular pronouns will substitute and word groups. *I have, we have, you have, they have, he has, she has, it has; I do, we do, you do, they do, he does, she does, it does.* *Be* has three suppletive forms in the present tense *am, is, are* as follows: *I am, we are, you are, they are, he is, she is, it is.*

Quasi auxiliaries may precede the verb stem, the present participle, and the past participle, e.g.: *I do insist; They are playing; He has eaten.*

The quasi auxiliary *do* is used in questions, negative sentences, and emphatic affirmations.

Do you know the answer?

She didn't do it.

I did see him.

The Past

The Simple Past form takes on two forms: regular and irregular. The regular form ends with the suffix {-ed} as in played, walked, closed. The past tense suffix -ed is pronounced [t] after a voiceless consonant as in stopped, possessed, marked; it is pronounced [d] after a voiced consonant as in believed, closed, played, and it is pronounced [id] after another /t/, /d/ as in started, landed. The irregular past tense takes on numerous forms: some verbs remain the same, some form their past by a suppletive form, some replace their entire stem by a wholly different stem as in go, went, e.g., *went, ran, taught, wrote, smelt, took, made, said, left, sent, spoke, met, drew, began, set.* The past tense form of the verb is not inflected (marked) for the first, second or third person nouns or pronouns.

The past tense form of the modal auxiliaries can, may, shall, will, must are could, might, should, would, ought. *Must* and *ought (to)* do not have parallel forms, like the others. To express the past tense of *must*, in the the sense of necessity, one says *had to*, e.g.:

You ought to take the medicine.

You ought to /should have taken the medicine.

The past tense form of the quasi auxiliaries *be*, *do* and *have* are: *had*; *was*, *were*; *did*. These past forms may precede the verb stem, the present participle, and the past participle. The quasi auxiliary *do* is used in questions, negative sentences, and emphatic affirmations.

Did you know the answer?

She didn't do it.

I did see him.

These past tense forms are not marked in accordance with the subject.

The Progressive

The present and past progressive consist of *be* + present participle the {-ing} form. Seven suppletive forms of *be* -*am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, *be*, *been* - are used as the first member of the verb phrases i.e. only the first member of the verbal phrase is inflected in accordance with the subject. The second member being does not change. The present participle suffix {-ing} does not change as well. When auxiliaries are employed in groups of two or three, the following obligatory sequence is followed: *be* + present participle.

The perspective

The past and the present perfect consist of *have* + past participle. The past participle is the {-ed} form of the verb. Three forms of *have* - *have*, *has*, *had*- serve as the first member of the verb phrase. The first member has changes in accordance with the subject; the second member which consists of the past participle of the main verb does not. When auxiliaries are used in groups of two or three, the following obligatory sequence is followed: *have* + past participle.

The past participle form of the verb may be regular or irregular. The regular past participle ends with the suffix {-ed}, e.g.: played, passed. The pronunciation and distribution of the allomorphs of the suffix {-ed} are the same as those for the past tense suffix. The irregular past participle, like irregular past tense - has numerous forms: some verbs remain the same, some form their past participle by a suppletive form, some replace their entire stem by a wholly different stem as in *go, went*, e.g., *gone, run, taught, written, smelt, taken, made, said, left, sent, spoken, met, drawn, begun, set*. Those most frequently occurring end in the same three sounds mentioned above, but here they are allomorphs of {-d2}. The past participle is used with *have, has, had*, having to form verbal phrases.

The Perfect Progressive

The past and the present perfect progressive consist of *have + been + present participle*. When auxiliaries are employed in groups of three, an obligatory sequence is followed: *have + be + present participle*.

5.2 Arabic Tense and Aspect

There are two tenses in Arabic: past and present. There is no future tense corresponding to the time/tense relation for present and past. The future time is rendered by means of the future particles (س) and (سوف).

سيذهب ، سوف يذهب ، يذهب ذهب

Arabic has two aspects: the perfect and the imperfect. The perfect refers to past time (or completed action), and the imperfect refers to present or non-past time. In Arabic, aspect-tense is shown by the addition of an aspect-tense prefix to the base form of the verb. The base form of the verb is the past third person singular masculine form used with *huwa*. To convert a verb into the active imperfect, an imperfect tense-aspect prefix is added to the third person masculine singular base form. This imperfect tense-aspect prefix has several variants. The distribution of the tense-aspect prefix and its variants *a-*, *na-*, *ta-*, *ya-* are shown in the table below.

<i>perfect</i>		<i>imperfect</i>
?naa	katab-tu	?a-ktub
nahnu	katab-na	na-ktub
?anta	katab-ta	ta-ktub
?anti	katab-ti	ta-ktub-ii-n
?antumaa	katab-tu-m-aa	ta-ktub-aa-n
?antum	katab-tu-m	ta-ktub-uu-n
?antunna	katab-tu-nna	ta-ktub-na
huwa	katab	ya-ktub
hiya	katab-at	ta-ktub
humaa	katab-aa	ya-ktub-aa-n
humaa	katab-at-aa	ta-ktub-aa-n
hum	katab-uu	ya-ktub-uu-n
hunna	katab-na	ya-ktub-na

In the passive, a passive tense-aspect prefix is added to the third person masculine singular base form. This passive imperfect tense-aspect prefix has several variants. The distribution of the tense-aspect prefix and its variants ?a-, na-, ta-, ya- are shown in the table below.

The perfect takes on two forms: regular and irregular depending on the composition of the base form (root). The regular form ends with the pronominal suffixes -tu, -na, -ta, -ti, -tu-maa, -tu-m, -tu-nna, -aa, -uu, -na without any internal changes in the base form. Regular verbs contain no long vowels aa or uu or ii ا، و، ي. The irregular past tense takes on numerous forms: some verbs form their past by a suppletive form. The past tense form of the verb is not inflected (unmarked) for the first, second or third person nouns or pronouns.

- fully inflected verbs الافعال الصحيحة are classified into sound السالم, doubled المضعف and verbs containing a glottal stop (المهموز verbs with initial, medial or final glottal stop). When the imperfect tense prefix is added to a triliteral verb, the following changes in the form of the base form take place depending on the composition of the base form:

- a sound perfect verb, no change take place in the radicals of the base form, e.g.: shariba: yashrab, yashrabaan
 - verb with a glottal stop, no changes take place in the radicals of the base form, e.g.: ?axatha: na-?xuth, ya-?xuth-uun; sa?ala: ya-s?al-aan, ta-s?al-iin.
 - A doubled verb, no changes take place in the radicals in the imperfect, but the geminated third radical is substituted by two separate consonants in the first and second person, and the base form remains the same in the third person singular.
 - Initial w. it is deleted, e.g.: wa9ada: ya-9id, ya-9idna, ya-9idaan.
 - Initial y. base form does not undergo any change.
 - A medial aa, aa changes into uu or ii, e.g. qaala: ya-quul, ta-quulaan, ta-quuluun; 9aasha: na-9iishu, ta-9iishuuna.
 - Final aa, it changes to uu or ii, e.g.: masha: ya-mshii, ta-mshii, ?a-mshii, ta-mshiy-aan, yamshiyaan; ranaa: ya-rnuu, ?a-rnuu, ya-rn-uun, ta-rnuw-aan, ya-rnuw-aan.
 - Initial w and final y, w is deleted, but y is retained in the imperfect, e.g.: waqaa, ya-qii, naqii, taqii, ya-qiy-aan, ta-qiy-aan.
 - initial w and a final aa, w is retained and aa changes into ii, e.g.: waasaa , yu-wasii, tuwaasii, nuwaasii, yu-waasiy-aan, tuwaasiyaan.
- The negative verb laysa and verbs like عسى حرى انشأ طفق أخذ جعل نعم بئس ساء حبذا خلا عدا حاشا قلما شذما have no imperfect form.
- Defective verbs الافعال الناقصة such as yaswaa يسوى has only an imperfect form. It has no perfect form.

5.3 Translation from English

English has too many subclasses of verbs weak and strong. Weak verbs have only four inflected forms and strong verbs have five.

The Arabic verb system is the most complex of the morphologically distinct classes. Verbs are inflected for TENSE, PERSON, GENDER and NUMBER.

Present

The simple present tense is used to express general time

Present Progressive

The progressive form is used for a single temporary event that has a beginning and an end. It suggests that an event began and is continuing, but it does not necessarily include the end of the action.

- Whether the present progressive tense indicates
- When the present progressive tense signal future time (when it is accompanied by a future time expression), the Arabic equivalent is sa+ the imperfect of the verb:

He is leaving for London tomorrow.

سيغادر الى لندن غداً

The exhibition is starting next week .

سيبدأ المعرض الاسبوع القادم

- When the present progressive tense indicates that the future action is a plan made in the present, with the past possibly included, the Arabic equivalent consists of sa + the imperfect of the verb, especially when verbs that show the intention of the subject or that can indicate the result of planning by some agent:

I am giving a speech tomorrow.

. سألقي كلمة غداً

Past progressive

The past progressive form emphasizes the duration of one past event that has a possible beginning and ending:

What were you reading last week?

ماذا كنت تقرأ الاسبوع الماضي

When I entered the room, the speaker was already giving his speech.

عندما دخلت الغرفة كان المحاضر يلقي كلمته

The progressive may express duration of an event at one point in the past:

Last Tuesday, I was preparing for the party.

يوم الثلاثاء الماضي كنت اعد العدة للحفلة

The progressive is used for a past action in progress is suddenly or unexpectedly interrupted by another past action:

I was sitting in the garden, when Mary passed by.

كنت اجلس في الحديقة، عندما مرت ماري

While I was driving my car, I saw john in the street.

عندما كنت اقوم سيارتي رأيت جون في الشارع

In sentences referring to two past acts that are in progress simultaneously, the past progressive form may occur with both of the actions in progress with only one, or with neither:

He was reading while Mary was cooking dinner.

كان يقرأ بينما كانت ماري تطهو طعام العشاء

He read while Mary cooked the dinne.

كان يقرأ عندما كانت ماري تطهو طعام العشاء

He was reading while mary cooked the dinner.

كان يقرأ عندما كانت ماري تطهو طعام العشاء

He read while Mary was cooking the dinner.

كان يقرأ عندما كانت ماري تطهو طعام العشاء

Future

Frank pp 75-76

- When will means promise, the Arabic equivalent is
I will come next month.
سأتي الشهر القادم
- when will means intention
I will solve all the problems myself.
سأحل جميع المشكلات بنفسي
- When will expresses willingness
I will be happy to take the children to the park.
يسعدني ان اخذ الاولاد الى المتنزه
- will expresses volition = want to:
If you will help me I will help you.
اذا ساعدتني ، سأساعدك
- when will means plans, arrangements, and schedules;
The game will start at 7.
ستبدأ المباراة في تمام الساعة السابعة
- when will expresses prediction:
The weather will always be hot there.
سيكون الطقس دائماً حاراً هناك.
- when will expresses instruction
You will take the tablets first and then you will use the shots.
خذ الاقراص اولاً ثم استخدم الحقن
- When will expresses inclination, tendency (a general statement based on past observation is made about the future).
Accidents will happen in the best regulated families.
تقع الحوادث في اكثر العائلات انضباطاً

- when will expresses obstinacy, insistence, wilfulness (with emphasis on the word will):
Students will be students.
الطلاب هم الطلاب
- when will expresses supposition:
You will see by reading this book that exercising is good for your health.
سترى بقراءة هذا الكتاب ان ممارسة الرياضة مفيدة للصحة
- *shall* is used in request in the sense do you want me to:
Shall I do the dishes?
هل اقوم بغسل الاطباق؟
- *Shall* is used in legal or commercial usage with the third person -for regulations, specifications, and requirements:
A committee shall be responsible for collecting money for the handicapped.
سيكون هناك لجنة مسؤولة عن جمع النقود للمعاقين

The tour shall meet all specificatios set forth in the brochure.
ستكون الرحلة مطابقة لجميع المواصفات المبينة في دليل الرحلات

Students shall be permitted to register for the new course during pre-registration period.
سيسمح للطلاب بتسجيل المقرر الجديد اثناء فترة التسجيل المبكر
- *Shall* is used in moral injunctions with the second person-an archaic usage found in the Bible where shall was often used for futurity for all three persons:
**Thou shall honor thy father and thy mother.*
اكرم اباك وامك

**Thou shall not kill.*
لا تقتل

Shall is used in literary usage with third person:

Who shall decide when the members of the committee disagree?
من سيتخذ القرار عندما يختلف اعضاء اللجنة

Future progressive

- When the future tense expresses duration of a single future event as in (a), indicates duration at some point as in (b), , the Arabic equivalent consists of sa + the imperfect of the verb. When See and hear used in future progressive form have special meaning as in (c), the form is still the same , but the lexical meaning of the verb changes.

(a) *He will be working on the experiment for three months.*
سيعكف على التجربة مدة ثلاثة اشهر

He will be having health problems for a very long time.
سيعاني من مشكلات صحية لمدة طويلة

(b) *She will be visiting her mother next Thursday.*
· ستكون في زيارة امها يوم الثلاثاء القادم

She will be studying for her comprehensive exam the whole summer.
· ستذاكر للإمتحان الشامل طوال الصيف

(c) **I'll be seeing you.* (I expect to meet you)

**You'll be hearing from us* (you will get a communication from us)
سنكتب اليك بخصوص ذلك ، سنخطرك بخطاب

Present Perfect

Frank pp. 78-79.

Structurally, the perfect signifies that a form of have accompanies a verb as an auxiliary. Semantically, each of the three perfect tenses denotes time completed in relation to a particular point. The Present Perfect tense denotes time completed in relation to the present; the past perfect tense denotes time completed in relation to

the past; and the future perfect tense denotes time completed in relation to the future.

In Arabic, a temporal reference point in the past, or the future, is established by the Perfect of kaana + the particle قد, سوف, س, may be added to the perfect of the verb as in (1), the perfect of kaana may be added to the future sa yaktub as in (2), The future sa yakkunu + qad + the perfect of the verb as in (3). To establish a temporal reference point in the future, sa yakuunu + qad with the perfect of the verb

- (1) kaana qad katab
- (2) kaana sa yaktub
- (3) sa yakuunu qad katab

in English, the present perfect denotes actual-past-to-present time. An actual event starts in the past and continues up to the present. Several expressions of time mark the past-to-present event like since, for, so far, up to now, until now, up to the present, all his life, in his whole life, e.g.:

I have worked as a teacher for five years.

لقد عملت مدرسة مدة خمس سنوات

She has lived in London since 1965.

لقد عاشت في لندن منذ عام 1965

Up to now, she has written three books the thief.

لقد كتبت ثلاثة كتب لحد الآن.

I have visited ten countries so far.

لقد زرت عشرة دول لحد الآن

In Arabic, the past-to-present time is denoted by the perfect of the verb and the particle قد, لقد. However, when a negative present perfect verb is used, the particles قد and لقد are no longer used; the imperfect of the verb and the negative particle gl are used instead, e.g.:

I have not seen her yet.

لم ارها لحد الآن.

He has not found a new job since he quit his job at our company.

. لم يعثر على وظيفة جديدة منذ ان ترك وظيفته في شركتنا

In questions, the Arabic equivalent to the English present perfect tense is the perfect of the verb, e.g.:

Have you met her?

هل قابلتها؟

What have you brought with you?

ماذا احضرت معك؟

In English adverbial or adjectival clauses in which the present perfect tense is used instead of the present tense used for the future, The Arabic equivalent to the English present perfect may be the perfect or the imperfect of the verb, e.g.:

if he has finished (finishes) his homework, he will go to the game.

اذا انتهى من اداء واجباته ، سيذهب الى المباراة

he will not go to the game, until he has finished (finishes) his homework.

لن يذهب الى المباراة ، الى ان ينتهي من اداء واجباته

Present Perfect Progressive

The progressive form of the present perfect tense stresses the duration of a single past-to-present action that has a beginning and an end. It stresses the middle of an event rather than its beginning and end. It is more closely related to the present than nonprogressive forms. The Arabic equivalent is the imperfect of the verb. When the subject is a pronoun, the Arabic verb should be preceded by the particle ان + pronoun; if the subject is a noun, ان is not used, e.g.:

The committee has been discussing the problem for more than two hours.

اللجنة المشكلة منذ أكثر من ساعتين تناقش

They have been discussing the problem for more than two hours.

انهم يناقشون المشكلة منذ أكثر من ساعتين

She has been living in London since 1965.

1965. انها تعيش في لندن منذ عام

Recently we have been studying together almost everyday.

اننا نستذكر معاً كل يوم تقريباً

Past Perfect

- In English, the past perfect or the Simple Past may be used to show that one action in the past happened before another action in the past. In Arabic, when one action takes place before another, the first one is in the perfect and the second may consists of the infinitive particle ان + imperfect as In (a), ان + the perfect as in (b), or the perfect as in (c). Thus two forms in English (the past perfect and the past simple) equate with one form in Arabic (the perfect) and three forms in Arabic equate with one form in English (past tense). The Arabic perfect is used for both, the past perfect and the past simple as in:

(a) *Mary had finished (1) sewing her dress before she went (2) to the party.*

Mary finished (1) sewing her dress before she went (1) to the party.

. انتهت ماري من حياكة الثوب ، قبل ان تذهب الى الحفلة .

(b) *Mary went (2) to the party after she had finished (1) sewing the dress.*

Mary went (2) to the party after she finished (1) the dress.

. ذهبت ماري الى الحفلة ، بعد ان انتهت من حياكة الثوب .

(c) *When Mary had finished (1) the dress, she went (2) to the party.*

When Mary finished (1) the dress, she went (2) to the party.

عندما انتهت ماري من حياكة الثوب ، ذهبت الى الحفلة

- In English, the past perfect is also used for unreal past states and actions (in the if-clause of the would-have condition). In Arabic

unreal past states and actions are expressed by the unreal conditional particle لو and the perfect tense in both the conditional clause and the main clause. The perfect verb in the main clause is preceded by laam, which is a correlative of law. Once again, two forms in English (the past perfect and the future perfect) are equated with one form in Arabic (the perfect only + the lam). The Arabic equivalent to the English conditional conjunction if is the لو.

(a) *If I had been a poet, I would have written a lot of poems.*

لو كنت شاعرة ، لكتبت كثيراً من الشعر

(b) *If the weather had been warmer, I would have gone to Alaska.*

لو كان الطقس أكثر دفئاً ، لذهبت إلى ألاسكا

Past Perfect Progressive

Frank p. 84.

The past perfect progressive emphasizes the duration of one past event taking place before another past event. The past perfect progressive form of the verb phrase is that something happened for a period of time before the past time you are thinking of.

He had been waiting at the airport for three hours before she could get on another flight.

لقد انتظر في المطار مدة ثلاث ساعات ، قبل أن يستقل رحلة أخرى

He had been studying very hard for ; his mother told him to take a break.

لقد ذاكر بجد ، ولقد طلبت منه والدته أن يأخذ فسحة

- The past progressive form, like the past progressive form, may show a past event in progress before it is interrupted by another past event. The past perfect progressive, however, places greater emphasis on the fact that one event is completed before the other.

He had been getting ready to go home before he had a phone call.

كان يستعد للذهاب إلى المنزل قبل أن يرن جرس الهاتف

We had just been waiting for him when he suddenly entered

the room.

· لقد كنا لتونا ننتظره ، عندما دخل الغرفة فجأة

Future perfect

Frank pp. 85-86.

The future perfect tense is the future-before-future time. This tense emphasizes the fact that one future time is completed before another future time, i.e. one future time is past in relation to another future time. The event marked by the future perfect tense actually begins in the past and ends in the future; we may then speak of past-to-future time.

The future perfect tense is usually accompanied by the a time expression which signals at, by, or before which time a future event will be completed.

- When the future end point is a time at which (time expression on, at, when), the Arabic equivalent is sa + yakuunu + qad + the perfect of the verb:

In january, She will have graduated for five years.

· في شهر يناير ، سيكون قد مضى على تخرجها خمس سنوات

At the end of this month, I will have been working at the university for ten years.

· مع نهاية هذا الشهر ، سأكون قد امضيت في عملي في الجامعة عشر سنوات

When I finish reading this book, I will have read five books in a week.

· عندما انتهي من هذا الكتاب ، سأكون قد قرأت خمسة كتب هذا الاسبوع

- When the future end point is a time by which (time expressions with by), the Arabic equivalent is sa + yakuunu + qad + the perfect of the verb:

I leave work late tonight. By the time I get home my children will have gone to bed.

سأغادر عملي في وقت متأخر هذه الليل. في الوقت الذي اصل فيه الى البيت سيكون الاولاد قد آووا الى فراشهم

By the end of the semester, I will have given my students five exams.

مع نهاية الفصل الدراسي سأكون قد أعطيت طالباتي خمسة اختبارات

- When the future end point is a time before which (time expression with before), the Arabic equivalent is sa + yakuunu + qad + the perfect of the verb:

The spectators will have gone home before the end of the game.

سيكون النظارة قد ذهبوا الى البيت قبل نهاية المباراة

Before his term is over, he will have made many improvements at work.

قبل ان تنتهي مدته ، سيكون قد اجرى كثيراً من التحسينات في العمل

They will have helped many people before their money runs out.

سيكونو قد ساعدوا الكثير من الناس قبل ان تنفذ نفودهم

- Sometimes the future perfect tense differs from the future tense in that it marks an event as having already begun:

In the near future, a cure for AIDS will have been discovered.

في المستقبل القريب، سيكونون قد اكتشفوا علاجاً لمرض الايدز في المستقبل القريب سيكون علاج مرض الايدز قد اكتشف

In the near future, a cure for AIDS will be discovered.

في المستقبل القريب سيكتشف علاج لمرض الايدز

- if the word already is used for future time, the future perfect tense is often required, the Arabic equivalent is sa + yakuunu + qad + the perfect of the verb:

When you come back from vacation, I will have already finished writing my book.

عندما تعود من الاجازة سأكون قد انتهيت من كتابة كتابي

I will already have gone to bed by the time you get

home.

سأكون قد أويت الى فراشي ، في الوقت الذي تعود فيه الى البيت

- In some sentences with already, the future tense may alternate with the present perfect tense, the Arabic equivalent is sa + yakuunu + qad + the perfect of the verb:

Before the police find the murderer, he will have already left the country.

قبل ان يعثر رجال البوليس على القاتل سيكون قد غادر البلاد

Future Perfect Preogressive

It stresses the duration of a single event in the future that takes place before another future. The Arabic equivalent is sa + yakuunu + qad + the perfect of a verb expressing time + infinitive noun of the main verb. :

On July 9, we will have been studying at the university for three years.

في العاشر من يولية ، سيكون قد مضى على دراستي بالجامعة ثلاث سنوات

I will have been travelling for two months before I get to New Zealand.

سيكون قد مضى على ترحالي شهران عندما اصل الى نيوزيلاندة

I wil have been watching the movie for two hours before I go to bed.

سيكون قد مضى على مشاهدتي الفيلم ساعتان قبل ان اوي الى فراشي

سأكون قد امضيت ساعتين في مشاهدة الفيلم قبل ان اوي الى فراشي

Auxiliary Verbs

Frank pp. 95-107.

Auxiliaries add to the verb a special semantic component such as ability, obligation and possibility. Smoe of the modal auxiliaries express the same kinds of semantic coloring as verbs in the subjunctive mood.

- can and be able to may indicate physical ability as in (a), a learned ability, i.e., knowing how to do something as in (b), having the power to do something as in (c):

(a) *I can run for five miles.*

(b) *He can swim.*

(c) *I can come to the party tomorrow.*

- *May* is used for permission. *Can* can be also used for permission. The past form of *may* and *can* are also used in requests:

May I borrow your book?

Can I borrow your book?

May and *can* are used in the sense of be permitted:

Anyone may (or can) donate money.

May indicates a possible chance, *can* connotes greater certainty.

may have and *could have* are used for past possibility:

He could /may/might have had an accident.

They could (might) have missed the bus.

Can (could, might) she still be at the office?

May expresses the greatest possibility; *should* suggests a reasonable degree of probability; *must* denotes the greatest degree of probability.

Present time:

She left the office an hour ago.

She may (might) possibly be at home by now (uncertainty).

She should be at home by now (expectation).

She must certainly be at home by now (certainty).

Past time:

She left the office an hour ago.

She may possibly have gotten home by now.

She should have gotten home by now.

He must certainly have gotten home by now.

Future time:

She is leaving her office now.
She may (might) get home in half an hour.
She should get home in half an hour.

Sentences with the modal auxiliaries *may*, *should*, *must* in the second and third persons may be the equivalent of imperative sentences that range from mild suggestions to stern commands:

You may leave the door open.
You might n in your paper a day later.
All employees should come to the meeting today.
You must drink your milk now.

Might and *could* also indicate only past time

She says that Mary may (can) go to the party.
She said Mary could go to the party.

- *Should have* and *ought to have* imply that the action was not performed:

Mary should have gone to work yesterday.

In a question with the perfect form, the action has in fact been performed:

Should Mary have gone to work yesterday?

- *had better* denotes advisability;
You had better find another job if you want to earn more money.
- *Must* and *have to* suggest a more urgent course of action which does not allow for the possibility of rejection:
You must (have to) go to work on time.

should/ought to make a moderate recommendation, whereas *must/ have to* make a strong recommendation:

- (a) *This is an excellent novel. You should /ought to read it.*
- (b) *This is an excellent book you must/have to read it.*

Must is generally felt as stronger than have to. its use ranges from a compulsion forced on us by life itself (a) to a constraint imposed on us by others in authority (b), to a constraint placed on us by ourselves (c):

(a) *We must keep warm in cold weather.*

(b) *You must obey the law.*

(c) *I must the house every weekend.*

- The past tense of must (had to) is used in the sequence of tenses:
She tells me I must visit her.
She told me I had to visit her.
- The negative of must has a different meaning from the negative of had to. Must not denotes that it is strongly recommended not to take a certain course of action; do not have to denotes that it is not necessary to take a certain course of action:
must not often has the effect of prohibition, especially when used with you;
You must not swim in swamps.
- need to , have got to , express necessity:
I have got to finish this before I go to bed.
- should and would express obligation:
you should do what your

5.4 Translation from Arabic

Present

The simple present tense is usually used to express general time. It can include the past, present and the future. The timeless present is useful in general statements such as eternal truths, generalizations about customs of single individuals:

General truths:

**the earth revolves around the earth.*

**The sun rises in the east and sets in the west.*

**children learn faster when their needs and interests are provided for.*

Customs:

Includes the habitual actions of nations, communities, groups, individuals. With or without an expression expressing frequency:

**The English frequently drinks tea in the afternoon.*

**I always take my umbrella with me when it rains.*

**Englishmen drink tea in the afternoon.*

**I take my umbrella with me when it rains.*

The present simple is also used to express present time with many non-action verbs, especially those expressing state or condition.

Linking verbs: be, seem, appear, look:

**she seems to be tired today.*

**he's feeling the surface of the earth.*

Verbs of perceptio like *feel, taste, smell*, used intransitively:

**the medicine tastes bitter.*

**he's feeling the surface of the table*

See, hear used transitively:

**I hear music coming from the other room, but i am listening to the radio.*

Verbs indicating a mental state or condition such as; agree, believe, consider, guess, hesitate, imagine, know, prefer, realize, remember, suppose, trust, want, wish. Many of these verbs are followed by noun clauses or by verbal phrases.

Verbs expressing an emotional state such as *admire, appreciate, care, like, love, regret, trust:*

**we love each other very much.*

**he admires his father more than he will admit.*

**I appreciate a good meal.*

Other non-action verbs like *belong, contain, depend, equal, have, hold, indicate, mean, need, owe, require, resemble, tend.*

With verbs of saying and telling:

**he says he cannot come tonight.*

**we suggest that you take warm clothes with you.*

To express future time with verbs like *come, go, arrive, depart.*

The English progressive mostly occurs with verbs that denote limited duration (*eat, play, study, work, meet*). However, it can also occur with verbs that express some stage in a progression-the beginning, end or continuatuion of an action:

The game is beginning now.

The play is getting more and more boring.

A few verbs may occur in either the progressive or the simple form of the present tense, depending on the kind of emphasis d. if the emphasis is on the university of one event, the progressive is used:

He is planning to go to start his own business.

What are you studying? I am studying engineering.

Where are you working? I am working at King Saud University.

If the emphasis is on the general idea denoted by the verb, the simple present is used:

He plans to go to London.

He studies engineering.

I work at king Saud University.

Sometimes the progressive is used in a general statement to add a feeling of present action in progress:

**They enjoy listening to good music while they are eating their dinner.*

**Millions of people are watching (vs. watch) television every night.*

Future

كاد اوشك

For the very immediate future, be about to, or be on the point of is used:

past

6 Mood

Mood is a meaning signalled by a grammatical verb form that expresses the subject's attitude or intent. Mood relates the verbal action to such conditions as certainty, obligation, necessity, and possibility. There are four mood categories: indicative, imperative, the subjunctive and the optative. The expression of future is closely bound up with mood (Quirk). Futurity, modality and aspect are closely related.

6.1 English Mood

English has the following mood categories:

Indicative

English verbs are marked for the indicative mood in the present third person singular only by the suffix -s. The past tense form is not marked for the indicative, e.g.: I go, we go, you go, they go, he goes, she goes, it goes; I went, we went, you went, they went, he went, she went, it went.

Imperative

English verbs are not inflectionally marked for the imperative. The imperative is the uninflected verb form used with the second person you, e.g.:

Go away!

Open the window.

Subjunctive

When verbs are in the subjunctive mood, 0 suffix is added to the verb in the third person singular, or the plural form is used, i.e. the uninflected base form is used instead of the third person singular -s form. The subjunctive is used in that-clauses after some verbs and adjectives such as *insist, demand, require, move, ask, propose, suggest, essential, necessary*. This means that there is no agreement between the subject and the finite verb in the third person singular and the present and the past tense forms are indistinguishable (Quirk, pp. 51-52).

It is necessary that every employee inform himself of these rules.

It is necessary that every employee should inform himself of these rules.

I suggested that he go on a bus tour.

The subjunctive is used in a few formal idioms expressing a strong wish. Here, the subjunctive consists of the the base form of the verb:

God save the king.

Heaven forbid that he should fail his exams.

So be it then!

The subjunctive is used when an unreal meaning is expressed. it is used in conditional and subordinate clauses after optative verbs like wish. It occurs as the first and the third person singular past of the verb be:

I wish I were in Switzerland.

If I was/were to do smething, I would stop the war immediately.

She spoke to me as if she were my boss.

She walks as if she were a queen.

6.2 Arabic Mood

Arabic has five moods: imperative, indicative, the subjunctive, jussive and energetic.

imperative الامر

The imperative is formed by adding the prefix ?u- or its variant ?i- to the base form of the perfect verb together with an internal change in the vowel. The imperative has five forms (the imperative is marked for number and gender): masculine singular (?u-kttub, ?i-shrab), feminine singular (?u-ktubii, ?ishrabii), dual (?u-ktubaa, ?i-shrabaa), masculine plural (?u-ktubuu, ?i-shrabuu), feminine plural (?u-ktubna, ?i-shrabna).

The initial ?u- of ?i- is elided in الوصل والقطع

Some verbs occur only in the imperfect and cannot form the imperative such as: ليس عسى انشأ طفق أخذ جعل نعم بئس ساء حبذا خلا عدا حاشا
 some occur only in the imperfect and they cannot form the imperative such as يسوى. some verbs occur only in the imperative. They have no perfect or perfect form, e.g.: تعلم هب هات هلم تعال (قبلاوة)

An indeclinable form is also used as an imperative ,such a:
 .الدرس كتاب حذار .

المثبت Imperfect Indicative

Impefect verbs are marked for the indicative mood by the suffix *-u*. The suffix *-u* has two variants: *-ni*, *-na* and *0*. The distribution of the indicative mood suffix and its variants is as follows: The suffix *-u* is added to the base form of the verb to convert it to the indicative mood as in *?ana ?adrus-u*, *nahnu nadrus-u*, *?anta tadrus-u*, *huwa yadrus-u*, *hiya tadrus-u*. The suffix *-ni* is added in the dual as in *?antmaa and humaa tadrus-aa-ni*, *humaa yadrus-aa-ni*; *-na* is added to the second person singular feminine *?anti tadrus-ii-na*, the second and third person masculine plural as in *?antum tadrusuu-na* and *hum yadrusuu-na*; *0* suffix is added to the verb in the second and third feminine pluralas in *?antunna tadrus-na*, *hunna yadrus-na*. (see table)

?ana ?adrus-u
?anta tadrus-u
huwa yadrus-u
hiya tadrus-u
nahnu nadrus-u
?anti tadrus-ii-na
?antum tadrus-uu-na
hum yadrus-uu-na
?antumaa tadrus-aa-ni
humaa yadrus-aa-ni
humaa tadrus-aa-ni
?antunna tadrus-na
hunna yadrus-na

المنصوب Subjunctive

Imperfect verbs take the suffix *-a* (fatha) instead of the

indicative *-u* when preceded by the particles ان لن كي اذن. In such a case damma is substituted by fatha; and *-ni* and *-na* are deleted, e.g.:

<i>indicative</i>		<i>subjunctive</i>
?ana	?adrus-u	lan ?adrus-a
?anta	tadrus-u	lan ?adrus-a
huwa	yadrus-u	lan ?adrus-a
hiya	tadrus-u	lan ?adrus-a
nahnu	nadrus-u	lan ?adrus-a
?anti	tadrus-ii-na	lan tadrusii-
?antum	tadrus-uu-na	lan tadrusaa-
hum	yadrus-uu-na	lan tadrusaa-
?antumaa	tadrus-aa-ni	lan tadrusuu-
humaa	yadrus-aa-ni	lan tadrusuu-
humaa	tadrus-aa-ni	lan tadrusuu-
?antunna	tadrus-na	lan tadrus-na
hunna	yadrus-na	lan tadrus-na

Jussive المجزوم

لم The indicative suffixes *-u* (*damma*), *-ni*, and *-na* are deleted, when the Imperfect verb is preceded by the particles لا لما لام الامر لا لما لاهية ان اذ ما من مهما ما كيفما اي متى ايان اينما حيثما انى

(دعكور)

<i>indicative</i>		<i>jussive</i>	<i>jussive</i>
?ana	?adrus-u	lam ?adrus-	lam ?ashudd / ?ashdud
?anta	tadrus-u	lam ?adrus-	lam tashudd / tashdud
huwa	yadrus-u	lam ?adrus-	lam yashudd / yashdud
hiya	tadrus-u	lam ?adrus-	
nahnu	nadrus-u	lam ?adrus-	
?anti	tadrus-ii-na	lam tadrusii-	
?antum	tadrus-uu-ni	lam tadrusaa-	
hum	yadrus-uu-na	lam tadrusaa-	
?antumaa	tadrus-aa-ni	lam tadrusuu-	
humaa	yadrus-aa-ni	lam tadrusuu-	
humaa	tadrus-aa-ni	lam tadrusuu-	
?antunna	tadrus-na	lam tadrus-na	

hunna yadrus-na lam tadrus-na

Energetic التوكيد

The energetic suffix -nna and its variants -nni, -n (corroboration n) are added to the indicative, jussive and imperative. -nni is used in the dual. -n never occurs in the dual or feminine plural. -nna and its variants are deleted before another consonant. The suffixes -nna and -nn are preceded by the -a in the indicative, jussive and imperative moods.

<i>indicative</i>	<i>jussive</i>	<i>imperative</i>
hunna yaktub-a-nna	la-tashrab-a-nna	?uktub-a-nn
?antumaa taktubaa-ni	la-tathhabaa-nni	

<i>imperf. energ.</i>	<i>imper. energ.</i>
?ana la-?adfa9-a-nna	
nahnu la-nadfa9-a-nna	
?anta la-tadfa9-a-nna	adfa9-a-nna
?anti la-tadfa9-i-nna	adfa9-i-nna
?antumaa la-tadfa9-aa-nni	adfa9-aa-nni
?antumla-tadfa9-u-nna	adfa9-u-nna
?antunna la-tadfa9-naa-nni	adfa9-naa-nni
huwa la-yadfa9-a-nna	
hiya la-tadfa9-a-nna	
humaa la-yadfa9-aa-nni	
humaa la-tadfa9-aa-nni	
hum la-yadfa9-u-nna	
hunna la-yadfa9-naa-nni	

6.3 Translation from English

Arabic has five equivalent pronouns to the English second person you: انتَ ، انتِ ، انتما ، انتم ، انتن in addition, Arabic pronominal pronouns , that denote number, gender, case, constitute an inseparable part of the Arabic verb. Therefore, an imperative English sentence would have five Arabic equivalents:

Open the window.

افتح النافذة ، افتحي النافذة ، افتحا النافذة ، افتحوا النافذة ، افتحن النافذة

The context would help select one single translation of the above five.

Although there is no agreement between the subject and the finite verb in the third person singular. The present and the past tense forms are indistinguishable in English subjunctives used in that-clauses after verbs and adjectives like insist, demand, require, move, ask, propose, suggest, essential, necessary, yet the Arabic equivalent verbs are always inflected, and there is subject-verb agreement in number, gender, person,

It is necessary that every employee inform himself of these rules.

من الضروري ان يطلع كل موظف نفسه على هذه القوانين

It is necessary that every employee should inform himself of these rules.

من الضروري ان يطلع كل موظف نفسه على هذه القوانين

I suggested that he go on a bus tour.

اقترحت عليه ان يذهب في رحلة بالحافلة

The Arabic equivalent to English subjunctive used in idioms expressing a strong wish is not literal. Equivalent Arabic expressions used in similar situations. Although the English subjunctive consists of the the base form of the verb (the verb is uninflected), the Arabic equivalent verb is inflected for tense, person, number, gender, etc...

God save the king.

حفظ الله الملك ، رعى الله الملك

Heaven forbid that he should fail his exams.

So be it then!

ليكن ، وهو كذلك

The Arabic equivalent to English conditional and subordinate clauses in which were is used after optative verbs like wish consists of an optative verb like اتمنى, the optative article لو and . When an unreal meaning is expressed, the first and the third person singular past of the verb be is used. In Arabic, there is subject-verb agreement.

I wish I were in Switzerland.

اتمنى لو كنت في سويسرا

If I was/were to do smething, I would stop the war immediately.

She spoke to me as if she were my boss.

خاطبتني كما لو كانت رئيستي .

She walks as if she were a queen.

تمشي وكأنها ملكة .

تمشي كما لو كانت ملكة .

6.4 Translation from Arabic:

- The Arabic imperative has five forms: masculine singular, feminine singular, dual, masculine plural, feminine plural. There is only one equivalent to these five forms:

اكتب ، اكتب ، اکتبا ، اکتبوا ، اکتبن

Write.

- The English equivalent to Arabic verbs that only occur in the imperative is a verb.

هـب *suppose!*

هات *give me!*

هلم *Let's go!*

تعال *come along!*

- The English equivalent to Arabic indeclinable forms that are used as an imperative is a regular uninflected imperative verb:

اكتب الدرس *Write your lesson.*

حذار *Beware! Be careful!*

- All Arabic imperfect verbs are inflected in the indicative mood by the the indicativve mood suffix and its variants. The English equivalents will be inflected for the present tense by the suffix -s when used with he and she; the uninflected form will be used with the other pronouns.

Subjunctive المنصوب

- Imperfect verbs take the suffix -a (fatha) instead of the indicative -u when preceded by the particles ان لن كي اذن in such a case damma is subsituted by fatha; and -ni and -na are deleted, e.g.:
- In Arabic, an imperfect verb is in the jussive mood, when it is preceded by the particles من ان اذ ما من لا الناهية ، ان اذ ما من اي متى ايان اينما حيثما انى مهما ما كيفما اي متى ايان اينما حيثما انى. The indicative suffixes -u (damma), -ni, and -na are deleted. The English equivalent to Arabic vebts in the jussive mood is the negative.

لم يذهب محمد الى عمله بالامس

أزهرت الاشجار ولما يأت الربيع

لتذهب الى الطبيب فوراً

لا تكذب

ان تدرس ، تنجح

اذ

ما

من يدرس ينجح

مهما

ما تبذل من مجهود تكافأ عليه

كيفما

اي كتاب تختار اشتريه لك

متى تغادر اذهب معك
ايران

اينما تذهب اذهب معك حيثما

تجلس اجلس الى جوارك انى

تذهب اذهب معك

The energetic suffix -nna and its variants -nni, -n (corroboration n) are added to the indicative, jussive and imperative. -nni is used in the dual. -n never occurs in the dual or feminine plural. -nna and its variants are deleted before another consonant. The suffixes -nna and -nn are preceded by the -a in the indicative, jussive and imperative moods.

7. Transitivity

Verbs may be intransitive or transitive. An intransitive verb is one that does not take an object to complete its meaning such as walk, sleep, run, sit, stand. A transitive verb is one that may take a direct object, indirect object, object of preposition or complement to complete its meaning. Some transitive verbs may also be transitive without an expressed object though they may be really transitive in meaning, e.g. she is cooking, I am writing, he reads, they are eating.

7.1 Transitivity in English

We cannot tell whether a verb is transitive or intransitive by looking at it in isolation. The verb form does not indicate whether it is transitive or intransitive, because English verbs are not inflected for transitivity. No suffixes are used to transform an intransitive verb into a transitive one or vice versa.

7.2 Transitivity in Arabic

In Arabic, one can tell whether a verb is transitive or intransitive by looking at it in isolation. The verb form does indicate whether it is transitive or intransitive, because Arabic transitive verbs are characterized by certain verb patterns. The verb patterns *fa9ula* like *طهر* , شرف , *fa9ila* رَقَّ ; *tata99ala* تَفَرَّقَ* ; *tafa9ala* تَقَاتَلَ ; *ifta9ala* تَكَهَّرَ ; *tata9lal* اضمحلَّ ; *ir9allala* انقسم ; *infa9ala* احمرَّ ; *if9alla* اجتمع* ; *fa9ala?* كسر* ; *fa9ala?* استشار *istaf9ala* حارب ; *fa9ala?* اجلس ;

An intransitive verb can be transformed to a transitive verb by adding the prefix *?a-* (changing the verb to the pattern *?af9al*) as in *أجلس* <== *جلس* , by doubling C2 (changing the verb to the pattern *fa99al*) as in *فرح* <== *فرح* , by adding /aa/ after C1 (changing the verb to the pattern *ta9al*) as in *لعب* ==> *لاعب* , by adding the prefix *?ist-* (changing the verb to the pattern *?istaf9al*) as in *استطيب* ==> *طاب* , by adding a preposition *bi, fii* after the verb as in *اصبت بالصداع* , *رغبت في** العلم.

A transitive verb can be transformed to an intransitive verb by adding the prefix *?in-* as in *انكسر* ==> *كسر* ; by adding the prefix **ta-*

ادب ; by deleting the the above prefixes and infixes.

examples with * were taken from La Rousse

7.3 Transaltion from English

- The Arabic equivalent to an intransitive verb that is not followed by an object or a complement is also intransitive:
The baby slept. نام الطفل
They laughed ضحكوا
- The Arabic equivalent to English verbs that are both intransitive and transitive, i.e. verbs that can be used with or without an object can be also used with or without an object, e.g.:
Mary is reading ماري تقرأ
Mary is reading a book تقرأ ماري كتاباً
John is eating جون يأكل
John is eating an apple يأكل جون تفاحة
- The Arabic equivalent to english intrastive verbs pf position like sit and stand, and to verbs of motion like come, go, run , that are often followed by phrases of place or motion are also followed by phrases of place or motion, e.g.:
The boy is walking along the street يمشي الولد في الشارع
They sat on the bench جلسوا على المقعد لقد
She stood on the chair وقف على الكرسي
I went to school. ذهبت الى المدرسة
- English phrasal verbs such as turn off are usually followed by an object and hence they are considered transitive. The Arabic equivalent to English phrasal verbs is not a phrasal verb, because sush phrasal verbs have an idiomatic meaning. The equivalent is a single word followed by an object, e.g.:

لقد اطفأت الانوار *She turned off the lights*
Leech pp. 217, 488.

7.4 Translation from Arabic

- Arabic verbs that denote an instinct, a physical quality, a color, a deformity, cleanliness, state of being full or empty, a naturally inherent quality like *قُدْر* ، *عمي* ، *زرِق* ، *طال* ، *شجع* ، *نظف* ، *امتلاً* ، *شبع* ، *مرض* ، *حزن* are intransitive. Such Arabic verbs are derived from adjectives. The English equivalent to such verbs consists of a verb like *become* or *be* + adjective. English has no verbs derived from the adjectives *courage*, *tall*, *blue*, *blind*, *able*, *clean*, *full*, *sick*, *sad*. *شجع became courageous*; *طال became tall*; *زرِق became blue*; *عمي went blind*; *قُدْر was able to*; *نظف became clean*; *امتلاً was full*; *شبع was full*; *مرض got sick*; *حزن was sad*.
- The English equivalent to Arabic intransitive verbs like *شرف* ، *اخضر* ، *انصهر* ، *اشمأز* ، *تقهقر* sometimes consists of a transitive verb or *be* or *become* + adjective, e.g.:
 - انصهر الحديد The metal melted*
 - اخضر الزرع The plants became/turned/were green.*
 - شرف العمل The deed was honorable.*
 - تقهقر الجنود The soldiers retreated.*
 - اشمأز الولد The boy was sick.*
- The English equivalent to Arabic transitive verbs is also transitive, e.g.:
 - انكسر الزجاج The glass broke.*
 - كسرت الزجاج I broke the glass.*
 - كسرت الزجاج I smashed the glass (broke into small pieces).*
 - لعب الطفل The little boy played.*
 - لعبت الطفل I played with the little boy repeatedly/for a long time.*

لاعبت الطفل *I played with the little boy (we played with each other).*

جلس الولد *The boy sat down.*

اجلستها الى جانبي *I had her sit next to me.*

أجلست الطفل *I seated the little boy.*

جلّست الطفل *I had the little boy sit down.*

جالست ابي *I sat down with my father; I sat in my father's company, I kept my father's company; I sat down with my father and socialized with him.*

8. Voice

Voice is a syntactic pattern which indicates the verb-subject relationship. Voice is a modification of the verb to show the relation of its subject to the action expressed. (Covell).

8.1 English Voice

The principal English voices are active and passive. The active and the passive are merely two forms of the same verb: both express action. In the active voice, the subject of the verb carries out some action as in:

He hit the ball.

He ate an orange.

In the passive voice, the subject of the verb is the receiver of some action or state indicated by the verb, and the doer of the action becomes the object of the preposition by as in:

The ball was hit by the boy.

The orange was eaten by him.

The building is being refurbished.

The chair was sat on.

In the active, the object may be omitted; in the passive,

In English, voice is shown by the use of auxiliary words and the past participle of the verb followed by the by-phrase, the agent may be omitted or preceded by by e.g.:

An apple is eaten by the boy.

An apple was eaten by the boy

The car is being repaired.

The money has been paid.

The money will be paid by the customer.

It can be done.

It has to be done.

It will be written by Mary.

An intransitive verb with a preposition after it, may be passivized, taking the object of preposition for its subject. in the passive, the

agent may be omitted, e.g.:
The pen was written with.

8.2 Arabic Voice

The principal Arabic voices are active and passive voices. In the active voice, the subject of the verb carries some action. The doer of the action is explicit to us as in:

ضرب الولد الكرة
أكل الولد التفاحة

In the passive voice, the subject of the verb is the receiver of the action or state indicated by the verb. The doer of the action is not explicit to us, as in:

ضربت الكرة
كسرت النافذة

In Arabic, voice is shown by mutation (change of vowel in the verb). In imperfect verbs, the vowel following C1 is changed to /u/ and the vowel that follows C2 is changed to /i/ as in (1). In perfect verbs, C1 is followed by /u/ and C2 is followed by /a/ as in (2). If C2 consists of /ii/ or /uu/ in the present active verb, they change to /aa/ in the passive as in (3) and (4), and if the final consonant consists of /ii/ or /uu/ in the active, they change into /aa/ in the passive as in (5) and (6):

<i>Active</i>	<i>passive</i>
كسب	كسب
يكتب	يكتب
يقول	يقال
يضيف	يضاف
يشترى	يشتري
يتلو	يتلى

Some arabic verbs only occur in the passive such as:

عني بالطفل، جرح الرجل، أغمي عليه، سقط من يده (ندم)، غشي عليه، أولع بالفن
(القاموس الاساسي).

8.3 Translation from English

The Arabic equivalent to English passive verbs is as follows:

- present simple:
X is used for يستخدم
- past simple:
An apple was eaten اكلت التفاحة
- modal pattern:
The money will be paid ستُدفع النقود
It can be done يمكن عمله
It has to be done ينبغي عمله
- present prog.:
The car is being repaired السيارة قيد الاصلاح ، اصلاح
السيارة جار
- past prog.:
The problem was being discussed كانت المشكلة قيد المناقشة

The problem was being discussed when he entered the room كانت المشكلة تناقش (قيد المناقشة) عندما دخل الغرفة
- present perf.:
The party has been cancelled لقد الغيت الحفلة
The money has been paid. لقد دفعت النقود
- past perf.:
She said that the party had been cancelled
قالت إن الحفلة قد الغيت
- modal perfect:
The apple could have been eaten.
من المحتمل ان تكون التفاحة قد اكلت

- other passive structures:

I was taught how to ride a bicycle.
لقد علّمت (تعلمت) كيف اركب الدراجة

She was told that she got the job.
لقد أُخبرت (بلغها) انها حصلت على الوظيفة

he was asked how long he would stay at the office.
لقد سؤل كم سيبقى في المكتب

The medicine must be kept away from children.
ينبغي ان يحفظ (حفظ) الدواء بعيداً عن الاطفال

I was advised to take this medicine.
لقد نُصحت بتناول هذا الدواء

He has been known to come to work on time.
لقد عرف عنه انه يأتي الي العمل في الموعد المحدد

The children were found playing in the street.
لقد وُجد الاطفال يلعبون في الشارع

Leech pp. 329-334.

8.4 Translation from Arabic

1. بني المسجد منذ قرنين

The mosque was built two centuries ago.

يصنع الجبن من الحليب

Cheese is made from milk.

2. The English equivalent to Arabic verbs that only occur in the passive is generally active:

عني بالطفل

he took care of the little boy.

The little boy was taken care of.

جَنَّ الرَّجُلُ
The man went crazy

أَغْمِيَ عَلَى الْمَرِيضِ
The patient fainted.

سَقَطَ مِنْ يَدِهِ (نَدَمَ)
He regretted; He felt sorry for what he did.

غَشِيَ عَلَيْهِ
He fainted.

أُولِعَ بِالْفَنِّ
He was fond of art.

أَصِيبُ بِالصَّدَاعِ
I had a headache.

تَعَلَّقْتُ بِعَمَلِي
I am attached to my work.

انكسر الزجاج
The glass broke.

انقطع الحبل
The rope broke.

اندلعت النيران
The fire broke out.

تفرقت الأسرة
The family was separated
تمزق الشمل

تمزق القميص
The shirt was worn out.

9. Comparison

(Webster)

Comparison is the modification of adjectives and adverbs to show its three degrees of quality: positive, comparative and superlative.

English Comparison

In English, comparison may be indicated by inflections. Many English adjectives inflect for the comparative and superlative as follows:

- Short adjectives and a few monosyllabic adverbials can take comparative and superlative suffixes -er and -est as in:

<i>long</i>	<i>longer</i>	<i>longest.</i>
<i>fast</i>	<i>faster</i>	<i>fastest</i>

- some two-syllable adjectives and adverbs, especially those ending in -ly and -y can take the comparative and superlative suffixes -er, -est, e.g.:

<i>polite</i>	<i>politer</i>	<i>politest</i>
<i>funny</i>	<i>funnier</i>	<i>funniest</i>
<i>lovely</i>	<i>lovelier</i>	<i>loveliest</i>
<i>early</i>	<i>earlier</i>	<i>earliest</i>

- A superlative form is used with a few adjectives, e.g.:

<i>good</i>	<i>better</i>	<i>best</i>
<i>bad</i>	<i>worse</i>	<i>worst</i>
<i>little</i>	<i>less</i>	<i>least</i>
<i>far</i>	<i>farther</i>	<i>farthest</i>
<i>far</i>	<i>further</i>	<i>furthest</i>
<i>much</i>	<i>more</i>	<i>most</i>
<i>little</i>	<i>less</i>	<i>least</i>

- The variants more and most are added before polysyllabic adjectives and most adverbs such as:

<i>interesting</i>	<i>more interesting</i>	<i>most interesting.</i>
<i>comfortable</i>	<i>more comfortable</i>	<i>most comfortable</i>
<i>slowly</i>	<i>more slowly</i>	<i>most slowly</i>

- 0 suffix is used with some adjectives. Those do not allow inflected forms for the comparative and superlative forms in any construction such as unique, annual.

9.2 Arabic Comparison

(Azmi, Wright, Kabawa, La Rousse,)

In Arabic, the comparative and the superlative are expressed by the elative. No special suffixes are added to the verb or the substantive to form the elative. The elative is derived from verbs. However, it cannot be derived from any verb. Intransitive verbs cannot be compared. The meaning should be comparable. The verb should have full conjugation. The verb should not indicate color, beauty, defect in the body or indicate weather and should not consist of more than three consonants. The elative is formed as follows:

- The pattern ?af9al is used to derive the comparative from the verb followed by the preposition min. The pattern ?af9al is used to derive the comparative and superlative forms from a verbal adjective consisting of three radicals:

kabiir ?akbar min
jamiil ?ajmal min

- The variants (the function words) اكبر ، اعمق ، اقل ، اسرع ، اكثر ، اشد ، احسن ، اعظم ، احلى ، اعذب ، اقبح ، اجمل ، اسرع ، اطول are used to compare adjectives derived from the passive verbs, verbs consisting of more than three radicals, with verbal adjectives that denote color or a physical deformity, e.g.:

اشد حمرة	اشد قسوة
اسرع انطلاقاً	احسن تعليماً
اجود منه جواباً	اكثرت متعة

- The superlative is formed by adding the definite article ?al- to the comparative form or by deleting the preposition min ?af9al maa
الرجال العظام النساء الفضليات

اخى الاكبر	اختى الكبرى
اعظم ما اخترع	دول عظمى وليس عظميات

- comparative forms are not marked for number or gender. However, the superlative form is marked for number and gender.

9.3 Translation from English

To compare two things, two people, groups of people, the comparative form with -er or more, followed by than is used. When the comparison is between three or more things, three or more people or three or more groups of people and one is picked up as having more X than all the others, the superlative form with -est or most is used.

- Comparative words can be used without than, when we know what is being compared, e.g.:

**men have greater strength than women. Yes, but women live longer.*

الرجال اقوى من النساء. نعم .. ولكن النساء يعشن اطول.

**Air travel is becoming more popular. True, but i wish it were cheaper.*

السفر بالجو اصبح اكثر شيوعاً ، هذا صحيح ، ولكن اتمنى لو انه كان ارخص

- *To express the idea of continuing change, more and more are used, e.g.:

Our sales figures are getting better and better.

ارقام مبيعاتنا تزداد تحسناً

*his visits are growing more and more frequent.

- Adverbs of degree such as little, any, no, somewhat, can make a comparative word stronger or weaker, e.g.:

This car is much/ alot/ somewhat/a little/no cheaper than that one.

هذه السيارة ارخص من تلك

هذه السيارة اكثر رخصاً من تلك

هذه السيارة ارخص بعض الشيء من تلك

هذه السيارة ليست ارفع من تلك.

Your car isn't any faster than mine.

سيارتك ليست اسرع من سيارتي

9.4 Transaltion from Arabic

- *The* is often used before the superlative, e.g.:
She is the oldest in the family.
- After a superlative *in* or *of* + NP are used to say what is being compared. Usually *of* is followed by a plural noun, while *in* is followed by a singular noun.
John is the best of the three artists.
Tokyo is the largest city in the world
- A possessive noun or a possessive determiner can be used before the superlative, e.g.:
The word's largest city is Tokyo.
Shakespeare's best play was Hamlet.
- The words *first*, *last* and *next* behave like superlatives.

Leech pp. 84-87. examples* taken from Leech

Arabic vs English

(Stockwell)

In Arabic, there is a full set of distinctions for PERSON and NUMBER, a partial set of CASE distinctions , specifically marked GENDER forms and a LEVEL OF FORMALIRY category in the form of the second person.

Set of third person pronouns.

set of second person pronouns.

separate forms used with prepositions appear only in the group of

pronouns. there is no formal distinction to mark any different functions (reflexive, indirect object, direct object) of the with-verb group.

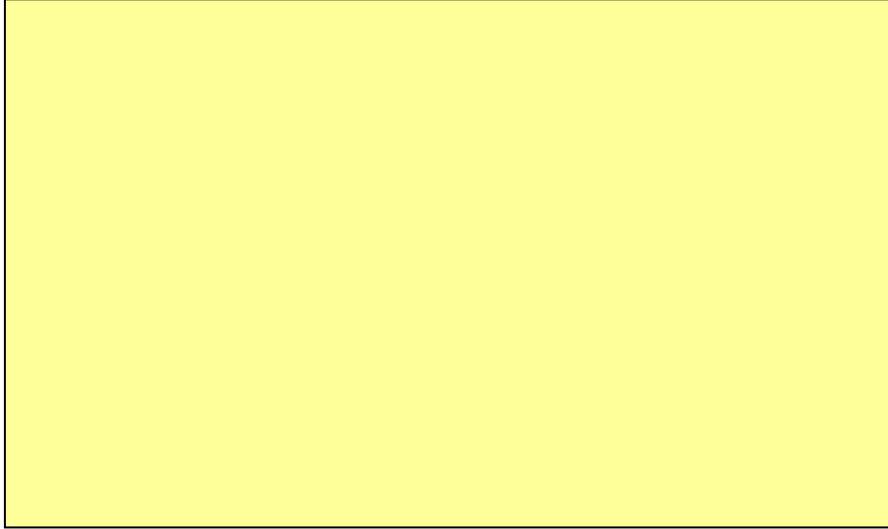
Number and gender distinctions are maintained for subject/object, attached and independent, and with-preposition and with-verb forms, in indirect and reflexive.

The English pronoun system is simpler, with distinctions for number, case and gender distinctions. Gender distinctions occur only in the third person singular forms. The others are unmarked. Arabic has 15 pronouns corresponding to the English pronoun 'you'. All the other English pronouns have 3 Arabic equivalents. The student has to pay attention to pronouns so that she will understand the forms and develop a feeling for the categories they express. The relative placement of the pronoun forms in the sentence requires special attention.

There is left a large class of items with only a single form, without any inflectional variants

There is no easy way to compare the forms within the classes (parts of speech). The inflectional categories do not match in any of the word classes.

Derivation



(Lehmann, Gleason, Webster, Stageberg)

Morphology consists of two layers: an outer one involving inflectionally bound forms and an inner one the layer of derivation. Derivation is the process of forming words from bases or roots by the addition of affixes, by internal phonetic change often with a change in the form class of a word. (Webster). The words with which derivational suffixes combine is an arbitrary matter. The derivational paradigm is a set of related words composed of the same base morpheme and all the derivational affixes that can go with this base . eg: employ, employer, employment, employee, employed, under-employment, unemployment, unemploy; beauty, beautiful, beautify, beautification, beautician.

A stem is what is left when inflectional elements have been taken away from a form. a stem consisting of more than one morpheme is called a derived stem. These, in their turn, break down into primary and secondary derived stems. In both of these types we distinguish between derivatives, which are formed by the use of affixes of one type or another

The processes of stem formation in English: (1) the addition of derivational affixes to roots or to stems of two or more morphemes will be described on the basis of the affixes used. for each affix is noted: the class or classes of stems (including roots) with which it is used and any pertinent restrictions within the class or classes; the class of stems produced; and any morphophonemic changes in either the affix itself or the stem. (Gleason)

1. English Derivation

In English, derived stems (derivatives) are formed by the use of affixes of one type or another. Derived stems are either primary or secondary. In a primary derivative, none of the constituent element is a stem, but one is a derivational affix, and the other is a derivationally bound form called a base as in receive, deceive, conceive. Primary derivation involves forms which are bound on the derivational level. In a secondary derivative, one of the immediate constituents is a stem, and the other is a derivational affix of some derivational formations as

in reception, attractive. Secondary derivation involves forms which are themselves susceptible of use in inflection (introduce, introductory, introduction).

- *receive , deceive , conceive, perceive.*
- *eject , reject, project, inject, subject.*
- *attract, subtract, detract, distract, contract, extract.*

In a secondary derivation, one constituent element is a stem and the other is a derivational prefix or suffix of some kind.

1.1 Prefixation

(Bauer, Quirk)

The vast majority of English prefixes are class-maintaining. Prefixes will be considered in terms of the the form class of the base to which they are added. The majority of prefixes can be added to bases of more than one form class. Productive prefixes normally have a slight stress on their first syllable, the main stress of the word coming on the base.

- (i) **Class-changing prefixes** are those that produce a derived form of the same class (Quirk). The following prefixes change the word class: *a-* asleep, ablaze, ashore; *be-* bedazzled, becalm, befriend, bewitch; *en-* enslave, enlarge, enchant.

- (ii) **Class-maintaining prefixes** are those that produce a derived form of the same class. The following prefixes do not change the word class: *un-* unjust, uncover; *non-* non-stop; *in-* incomplete; *dis-* discomfort, dislocate; *a-* anemia, amoral; *de-* decompose, degenerate; *mis-* misjudge, misunderstand, malnutrition; *pseudo-* pseudo-cleft; *arch-* arch-bishop; *super-* supernatural; *out-* ouperform; *sub-* subterranean, submarine; *over-* overdo; *under-* underestimate; *hyper-* hyper-active; *co-* cooperate; *counter-* counter-balance; *anti-* anti-aircraft, pro-pro-American; *inter-*; *trans-*; *fore-*; *pre-*; *post-*; *ex-*; *re-*; *uni-*; *mon-*; *bi-*; *di-*; *tri-*; *multi-*; *poly-*; *auto-*; *neo-*; *pan-*; *proto-*; *semi-*; *vice-*.

1.2 Suffixation

In many cases, a derivational suffix changes the part of speech of the word to which it is added. eg:

- (i) Class-maintaining affixes that produce a derived form of the same class. (Quirk & Greenbaum). The following suffixes do not change the word class: *-hood, manhood; -al; economical; -hood, childhood; -ship, friendship; -ics, linguistics; -ess, tigress; -ette, *kitchentte, *cigarette, *flannette, *usherette; -let, *booklet, *piglet; -ing, *panelling; -ful, spoonful; -(i)an, politician; -ite, *socialite; -ese, Lebanese; -ist, artist; -ism, criticism.*

- (ii) Class-changing derivatives that produce a derived form of another class, such as:
 - a. **verb-forming derivational affixes:** *-fy, beautify; -ate, fabricate; -en, harden, strengthen; -ize, industrialize.*

 - b. **noun-forming derivational affixes:** *-er, teacher, New Yorker, teenager; -ant, informant; -ee, trainee; -ation, coordination, organization; -ment, employment; -al, *refusal; -ing, reading, *building; -age, breakage; -ion, impression; -ance, entrance; -ure, pressure; -ness, dizziness; -ity, humanity; -ocracy, democracy; -th, width; -(i)an, politician; -ite, *socialite; -ese, Lebanese; -al, socialist; -ism, criticism, socialism, *adealism,*

 - c. **adjective-forming derivational affixes:** *-al, logical; -ical, economical; -ial, partial, -ful, beautiful; -able, comprehensible; -ish, yellowish, Irish, chidish; -ible, edible; -ed, curved; -ive, possessive; -ative, comparative; -itive, additive; -ic, synthetic; -an, European; -ern, western; -ous, joyous; -y, gloomy; -ory, introductory; -ly, manly, daily; -ary, customary.*

 - d. **adverb-forming derivational affixes:** *-ly, quickly; -ward(s), backwards; -wise, moneywise, *crabwise.*

changed in any way, but are derived from and built upon. Different sets of patterns are used in that process. Derived verbs and derived nouns are produced by lengthening a vowel, doubling C2, doubling C3, adding a prefix or infix. Some of the derivational patterns used in deriving the different kinds of nouns and verbs are listed below:

Derived Nouns:

- **agents (فاعل):** عالم ، سائق ، صانع ، عامل ، قارئ ، كاتب
- **Patients (مفعول):** مدروس ، مسموع ، مقروء ، مكتوب ، مفهوم
- **nouns that express the doing of the action once (فعللة):** جلسة ، عدوة ، رمية ، صدمة ، صفة ، ضربة ، لكمة ، شحنة ، دورة ، نظرة ، وقفة ، جولة ، ثورة ، فورة ، نفخة ، عضة ، قضمة ، كدمة ، صعقة ، صرعة ، حشرات ، كرة
- **nouns that indicate the manner of doing what is expressed by a verb (فعللة):** ركبة ، مينة ، ركلة ، قتلة ، شربة ، جلسة ، ميتة
- **nouns of place and time (مفعول):** ملتقى ، مشرق ، مغرب ، موعد ، مصيف ، ميعاد ، معمل ، مصنع ، مركز ، مكتب ، معهد ، مؤسسة ، مصلحة ، مملكة ، سلطنة ، مقاطعة ، محافظة ، ادارة ، وزارة ، وكالة ، سفارة ، مؤسسة ، جمعية ، رابطة ، جامعة ، امبراطورية ، قنصلية ، جمهورية ، دوقية ، امبراطورية
- **nouns of occupation** نقابة صحافة تجارة حدادة نجارة صرافة عمارة ملاحه صناعة فلاحه سقاية حجامه رقابة طبابة حياكة خياطة
- **small pieces that you can throw away (فعللة):** عصاره ، نشارة ، برادة ، حثالة ، قصاصه ، قطاعه
- **nouns of instruments, appliances, tools (مفعول ، مفعلة ، مفعال)** مشرط ، مبضع ، مجهر ، رافعة ، شاحنة ، فاعول فعالة ، قاذفة ، حافلة ، طائرة ، مبراة ، مكواة سماعة ، دباسة ، عصاره ، غسالة ، سخان ، مدمرة ، منفاخ ، محرك ، مولد ، صامولة

• **nouns of flow and diseases (فُعال)** : زكار ، زكام ، صداع ، زكام ، لعاب ، لعاب ، سعال نكاف ، هزال ، رعاف ، جذام ، دوار ، عصاب التهاب ، احتقان ، انسداد ، انتفاخ ، اعتلال ، اعوجاج ، اسهال امساك اختلال ، احمرار ،

• **constant occupation or behavior (فعال)** : بقاء ، بقاء ، خدام ، خدام ، جزار ، جزار ، رسام ، رسام ، حداد ، حداد ، نجار ، نجار ، عتال ، عتال ، فلاح ، فلاح ، فنان ، فنان ، لبان ، لبان ، حمال ، حمال ، عداء ، عداء ، خباز ، خباز ، سمان ، سمان ، جراح ، جراح ، طيار ، طيار ، دلال ، دلال ، صياد ، صياد ، قناص ، قناص ، دهان ، دهان ، عطار طباح ، كيال صباغ قصار

• **relative adjectives (الاسماء المنسوبة)** ، مصري ، مصري ، جوي ، جوي ، قمري ، قمري ، حسي ، حسي ، (الاسماء المنسوبة) ، عقلي ، عقلي ، قياسي ، قياسي ، شرعي ، شرعي ، مالكي ، مالكي ، خبري ، خبري ، طائفي ، طائفي ، ديني ، ديني ، علمي ، علمي ، عرفي ، عرفي ، سينمائي ، سينمائي ، تلفزيوني ، تلفزيوني ، كهربائي ، كهربائي ، صناعي ، صناعي ، زراعي ، زراعي ، تربوي ، تربوي ، طبي ، طبي ، عسكري ، عسكري ، خارجي ، دفاعي ، دفاعي ، هجومي ، هجومي ، ارهابي ، ارهابي ، تلقائي ، تلقائي ، عشوائي ، عشوائي ، همجي ، همجي ، عدواني ، عدواني ، انتاجي ، انتاجي ، عقلائي ، عقلائي ، مصري ، حربي ، حربي ، ابتدائي ، ابتدائي ، ثانوي ، ثانوي ، تعليمي ، تعليمي ، صفي ، صفي ، منهجي ، منهجي ، علمي ، علمي ، وطني ، وطني ، قومي ، قومي ، اتحادي ، اتحادي ، تكاملي ، تكافلي ، اسلامي ، اسلامي ، انشائي ، انشائي ، هندسي ، هندسي ، جامعي ، جامعي ، نفطي ، نفطي ، مفرداتي ، مفرداتي ، معلوماتي ، معلوماتي ، شبابي ، شبابي ، برامجي ، طلابي ، تعاهدي ، تعاهدي ، تكاملي ، تكاملي ، منظماتي ، منظماتي ، اممي (امم) ، عقائدي

• **المصدر الصناعي abstract nouns of quality**

انسانية طائفية يهودية صهيونية علمانية وجودية ماهية كيفية روحانية صليبية ربوبية خصوصية شاعرية جمعية مفهومية حنفية انتاجية عقلية كيفية شيوعية واقعية امبراطورية وجودية استعمارية رأسمالية ذاتية موضوعية اتحادية ازلية اندفاعية سقراطية ديموقراطية استعمارية انتهازية اقدمية اولوية الاسبقية افضلية تبعية عنجهية تلقائية عشوائية همجية عدوانية انتاجية عقلانية مصرفية ارهابية محاسبية صلاحية قابلية استاذية مصرفية مسامية العظام مفرداتية معلوماتية شبابية برامجية منظمات طلابية منظماتية اممية (امم) عقائدية نمطية طلائعية مندوبية الوهابية ذاتية موضوعية تجريدية مفهومية انسيابية احقية

- **the diminutive (فُعيل ، فُعيل)** كتيب ، كتيب ، كهيبر ، كهيبر ، نجيم ، نجيم ، بويضة ، بويضة ، اذنين ، اذنين ، بطين ، بطين ، شعيرات دموية ، شعيرات دموية ، حويصلات هوائية ، هوائية ، نوية ، نوية ، جبيل ، جبيل ، نهير ، نهير ، ذنيب ، ذنيب ، بصيلات الشعر

Derived Verbs

• **فُعِلَ** implies the following:

- **كسر** : an act done with great violence (intensive), such as مزق ، شذب ، جرح ، صقق ، شقق ، قطع ضرب

- an act done during a long time (temporally extensive) as in : بكى ، طوف :
- an act done to/by a number of individuals (numerically extensive) as in موت ، فرق ، جمع ، شئت ، جرب ،
- causative or factive signification as in: فرح ، ضعف ، كتب ، حمل علم ،
- declarative or estimative: كذب ، صدق
- making or doing of, or being occupied with the thing expressed by the noun from which it is derived: جيش ، خيم ، مرض ، جلد ، حياه سلم عليه ، قوس
- :شرق ، غرب ، سعد ، صوب ، وجه ، أقدم ، أدبر ، أقبل

b. **implies reciprocity** فاعل :لاطف ، جامل ، قاتل ، حارب ، هاجم ، صارع ، كاتب ، عامل ، خاصم ، فاخر ، سابق ، شارك ، قاوم

c. **أفعل** indicates the following:

- movement towards a place: أئتم ، أئتم ، أئتم
- entering upon a period of tim : اصبح ، امسى ، أظهر ، اشتى ، أصاف
- getting into a state or condition : أورق ، أثمر ، أمطر ، أسل ، أنجب
- acquiring a quality: أسرع أبطأ ، أبطأ
- obtaining or having something : أورق ، اثمر ، أفلس ، أجدب ، أفقر

d. **تفعل** expresses the following:

- : تفرق ، تقطع ، تعظم ، تكبر
- the idea of reflexiveness: تسمع ، تتبع ، تعرف ، تأبط ، تبنى ، تبصر ، تأمل ، تأنى ، تكلم ، تفوق ، تشمم ، تحقق ، تبين

e. **تفاعل expresses the following:**

- **the idea of reflexiveness** ، تبارك ، تعالى ، ترامى ، تغافل ، تماوت ، تعامى ، تجاهل ، تمارض
- **reciprocity** تفاعل تسامع به الناس، تساقطت الامطار، تداركت الاخبار
- actions that take place bit by bit or by successive efforts:
تساقط الشعر ، تحامل في المشي ، تداعى البناء ، تماسك تعاونت المرأة

f. **انفعل expresses an act to be done in reference to him, or an effort to be produced by him:**

- انكسر، انكشف ، انقلب ، انقطع ، انطلق انعدم ، انشطر، نصهر، انخفض ، انصدع

g. **افتعل expresses reflexiveness:**

- افترق ، افترش ، استمع ، اكتسب ، التمس ، اعترض ، امتلأ ، اغتسل ، اعتلى ، اشتعل

h. **اقعل is mainly used to express colors or to show intensiveness:**

- احمر ، اصفر ، ازرق ، اخضر ، اسود ، ابيض ، احول ، ازور

i. **استفعل expresses the following:**

- استسقى ، استعلم ، taking, seeking, asking for or demanding: استغفر استغاث ، استأذن
- استقام ، استحيا ، استكان ، استولى reflexiveness

j. A bilateral root, expressing a sound or movement is repeated to indicate the repetition of that sound or movement:

- بأبأ صرصر وسوس غرغرحمحم غمغم زلزل خشخش جلجل بربر
ثرثرجرجرخرخرشر صرصر فرفر كركر قهقهه دلدل جلجل خلخل زلزل سلسل
صلصل غلغل قلقل فلفل دمدم زمزم شمشممعم كمكم لملم لعلع دغدغ بقبق بقبق ،
لف لالف ، كف ككف ، قلق قاقلة

k. quadilateral verbs are formed from nouns of more than three letters, some of them are foreign words:

- بسمل حوقل حمدل فذلک سبيحل سرمن نقحربستن شجرعلمن سوق بوب فهرس
فوجقتن كقارب برمج كقارت جواقبا قلنس جالبب قطنر مندل مذهب مسكن تلمذ

فلسف بیطړکراین تئفن اکسد این دقرط سفلت هدرج فسپړیسترمعظ تلفز میکن ملین
سعود مصر عرب عمان (ترکیا) امرک فرنس ألمن نجلز لیزر
کتر استند

3. Comparison

In English, derivational affixes are stem-forming. Derivation is a continuing process, with some affixes still producing new words. English has derivational prefixes and suffixes as well. Arabic and English do not share any derivational affixes (equivalent forms). They do not share any suffixes and prefixes that show common origin and meaning.

The student has to learn the morphological range of derivational suffixes. The most likely problems she will encounter is obtaining a close equivalent in Arabic and troublesome problems in connection with the denotative and connotative ranges of morphological derivation.

Derivational suffixes do not close off a word, that is, after a derivational suffix one can sometimes add another derivational suffix and can frequently add an inflectional suffix.

4. Transaltion from English

(Stageberg

- a. Words are composed of three kinds of morphemes: bases, prefixes and suffixes. To figure out the meaning of a word, we can analyze the word into its constituent parts. We divide the word into the two parts of which it seems to have been composed. We continue to cut each part into two more parts until we reduce the word to its ultimate constituents (until all component morphemes of a word have been isolated), i.e. to the unit morpheme of which it is composed. eg: *unvaluable* ==> *un/valuable* ==> *value/able*.
- b. The inflectional morpheme /-er1/ has two homophones. The first is the derivational suffix /-er2/ which is attached to verbs to

form nouns (teacher, writer) It is called the agent -er and conveys the meaning of "that which performs the action of the verb stem". The second derivational -er suffix appears at the end of words like *flicker*, *glitter*, *chatter*, *utter*, *suffer*. This /-er3/ conveys the meaning of repetition.

- c. The inflectional suffix /-ing1/ has two homophones. The first one is the derivational suffix /-ing2/ which is found in words like writings, readings, meetings findings, meanings. This morpheme is derivational since it permits the addition of an inflectional suffix -s. When the suffix occurs alone without the inflectional suffix, as in writing, reading, meeting, the -ing is ambiguous, for it could be either /-ing1/ as in he is writing, or /-ing2/ as in his writings. The second homophone of /-ing1/ is the adjectival morpheme /-ing3/ as in interesting book. There are several tests by which the verbal /-ing1/ can be distinguished from the adjectival /-ing3/. The verbal /-ing1/ can usually occur before as well as after the noun it modifies:

I read an interesting book.

The book is interesting.

The adjectival /-ing3/ can be preceded by a qualifier like very, rather, quite or by the comparative and superlative words more and most as in:

I read a very interesting book.

- d. The verbal /-d/ has a homophone in the adjectival /-d3/ as in: she is interested in math. The adjectival /-d3/ is characterized by its capacity for modification by qualifiers like very, rather, quite and by more and most. The verbal /-d2/ does not accept such modifiers.
- e. The inflectional suffix /-ly1/ partakes of the characteristics of both derivational and inflectional. This /-ly1/ is added to most adjectives to form adverbs as in quickly, sharply. The adverbial /-ly1/ has a homophone the derivational suffix /-ly2/, an adjectival morpheme that is distributed as follows:

- - it is added to monosyllabic nouns to form adjectives that are inflected with -er, -est (timely, manly, costly).
- - it is added to plurisyllabic nouns to form adjectives that are not inflected with -er, -est cowardly, brotherly, fatherly, scholarly, heavenly).
- - it is added to a few adjectives, giving alternate adjectival forms that are also inflected with -er, -est (lively, kindly).
- - it is added to short list of time nouns to form adjectives (daily, hourly, monthly, weekly). Westerly winds

f. negation prefixes:

- This prefix a- is also added to adjectival bases, eg: *amoral, apolitical, atypical*,
- *un-* : the opposite of, not, eg: *unsuccessful*
- *non-* : not, eg: non-stop
- *in-* : the opposite of, not, eg: *inaccurate*
- *dis-* : the opposite of, not, eg: *disconnect*
- *de-*: to reverse action, eg: *decompose, deaestheticize, deboost, decapacitate, deescalate, desensitize* .

g. Reversative prefixes:

- *un-* : to reverse action, eg: *unfasten* ; to deprive of *unhorse*.
- *de-* : to reverse action, eg: *decompose*
- *dis-* : the opposite of, not, eg: *discomfort*

h. pejorative prefixes:

- *mis-*: wrongly, eg: *mismanage, misunderstand; astray*, eg: *misleading*
- *mal-*: bad(ly), eg: *malnutrition* , *malfunction*, *maladjustment*.
- *pseudo-* : false, imitation, eg: *pseudonym*

i. prefixes of degree/size

- *arch-* : highest, worst, eg: *arch-bishop, arch-enemy*

- super- : above, eg: *supernatural* ; more than, eg: super ; better, eg: superexcellent,
- out- : to do something faster, eg: *outperform*; *longer outlive*
- sur- : over and above, eg: *surcharge*
- sub- : lower than, less than, eg: *subterranean*, *subway*
- over- : too much, eg: *overexercise*
- under- : too little , eg: *underestimate*
- hyper- : extremely, eg: *hyperactive*
- hypo- : *hypotension*
- ultra- : extremely, beyond, eg: *ultra-sound*
- mini-: little, eg: *minibus*, *minicomputer*, *minidress*, *minikilt*, *minipill*, *miniwar*.

j. prefixes of attitude:

- co- : with, joint, eg: co-worker
- counter-: in apposition to, eg: counter-balance , counter-act,
- anti- : against, eg: anti-aircraft, antibiotic, anti-Semitic
- pro- : on the side of, eg: pro-Arab, pro-consul.

k. locative adjectives:

- sub- : beneath, lesser in rank, eg: *subterranean*
- super- : over, eg: *superimpose*
- inter- : between, among, eg: *intermixm*, *intercellular*.
- trans- : across, from one place to another, eg: *trans-world*, *trans-Atlantic*, *trans-continental*,

l. prefixes of time and order:

- fore- : before, eg: *forecast*
- pre-: before, eg: *pre-historic*, *pre-natal*, *pre-registration*, *pre-conference*.
- post- : after, eg: *post-graduate*
- ex- : former, eg: *ex-wife*, *ex-president*.
- re- : again, back, eg: *re-unite*, *return*

m. number prefixes:

- uni- : one, eg: uni-cellular
- mono- : one, eg: monosyllabic

- bi- : two, eg: binocular
- di- : two, eg: disyllabic
- tri- : three, eg: tripod
- multi- : many, eg: multicultural
- poly- : many, eg: polyglot

n. other prefixes:

- auto- : self, eg: autonomy, auto-focus.
- neo- : new, revived, eg: neo-classical
- pan- : all, world-wide, eg: *pan-pacific
- proto- : first, original, eg: proto-type,
- semi- : half, eg: semi-circular
- vice- : deputy, eg: vice-president.
- a- : This prefix mainly forms adjectives. The adjectives formed by this process are restricted to predicative position: the baby is asleep. eg: *ablaze*, **aclutter*, **astir*, **awash*, **asquish*, **aswivel*, **awhir*. (*Bauer)
- en-: this prefix forms transitive verbs, mainly from nouns, eg: **entomb*, **ensnare*, **enslave*.(Bauer),

o. occupational suffixes:

- -ster : person engaged in, eg, *gangster.
- -eer : an occupation or activity, e.g: mountaineer,
- -er : inhabitant, e.g: New Yorker.

p. diminutive or feminine:

- -let : small, eg: *booklet*, *leaflet*, *anklet*; unimportant, eg: *piglet*.
- -ess: female, eg: *tigress*
- -ette: small, compact, eg: **kitchente*; compact, eg: N, **cigarette*; imitation (material), N, **flannette*; female, N, **usherette*;

q. Status, domain suffixes:

- -hood : neighborhood; manhood, parenthood
- -ship: status, conditione.g: scholarship, friendship; courtship; hardship

- -ocracy :system of government, eg: democracy
اوتوقراطية ، beauracracy بيروقراطية ، autocracy ، ديموقراطي
استبدادية , theocracy, aristocracy;
- -dom : domain, condition, eg: kingdom, freedom,
boredom,
- -(e)ry : abstract nouns, behavior, eg: rivalry, chivalry,
bravery; concrete nouns, place of activity or abode, eg:
confectionery, *refinery; non-count nouns, collectively,
eg: machinery

r. verb-forming suffixes:

- -fy, -ize, -en are causeative beautify, يجمل; industrialize
يجعله صلباً/قاسياً/harden يصنع
- -ate : make. fabric +ate =fabricate يصنع ; initiate;
facility+ate = facilitate;
- -en :become X, eg: strength + -en = strengthen
يفوي/يجعله قوياً. wide + -en = widen

s. noun-forming derivational affixes:

- -er, -or, -ant: agentive and instrumental, eg: teacher,
inhabitant, informant, New Yorker, actor, donnator,
- -ee: passive, eg: trainee, testee, employee, examinee,
deportee, refugee,
- -ation: state, action, eg: determination,
industrialization تصنيع institution, eg: organization,
- -ment: state, action, eg: employment , توظيف
advancement, تقدم government , حكومة enjoyment
استمتاع,
- -ics: statistics; linguistics ;politics; astronautics.
- -ing : the substance of which N is composed N,
*panelling, padding,
- -ful : the amount which N contains, eg: N, spoonful,
handful,
- -al: action, eg: *refusal , رفض dismissal , صرف rental
انكار , انكار , وصول denial , تأجير arrival ,
- -ing: activity, result of activity, eg: reading, *building

- -age: activity, result of activity, eg: breakage, carriage, drainage,
- -ion: impression, compression, depression, suppression, possession.
- -ance: entrance, tolerance, correspondence, concordance,
- -ure: pressure, -ness : state, quality, eg: dizziness , دوار , hapiness , ارتفاع loudness لياقة , حزن sadness سعادة , fitness جنون , علو □ , madness
- -ity: state, quality, eg: humanity , انسانية , productivity; نسبية , relative حساسية ; انتاجية sensitivity ;
- -ism: political movement, attitude, eg: criticism , نقد , socialism اشتراكية , communism شيوعية , secularism مثالية idealism صهيونية , Zionism علمانية ,
- -th: width عرض , length طول , breadth اتساع .
- -(i)an: pertaining to, eg: politician, Shakespearian, Shakespearean, technician; nationality, eg: European,
- -ite: member of community, faction/type eg: *socialite,
- maronite; Shiite
- -ese : nationality, eg: Lebanese لبناني ; Siamese;
- -ist: member of a party, eg: socialist اشتراكي ; communist; zionist;

f. adjective-forming suffixes:

- 9 -al, -ical, -ial, -ic, -an, -ern : pertaining to, eg: logical منطقي , economical اقتصادي , partial جزئي , synthetic تركيبى , European أوروبى , western غربى
- 10 -ive, -ative, -itive : possessive, comparative, additive,
- 11 -ary, -ory : binary ثنائى , customary اعتيادي , introductory
- 12 -ly : manly daily
- 13 -ous, -eous -ious, -y, -ful : joyous جذل , envious حسود , courteous , جميل beautiful , gloomy كئيب دمث
- 14 -able, -ible: able, worthy to, eg: comprehensible, edible, breakable, combustible, flammable;
- 15 -(i)an: pertaining to, eg: politician, Shakespearian, Shakespearean, technician; nationality, eg: European,

- 16 -ite: member of community, faction/type eg: *socialite, maronite; shiite
- 17 -ese : nationality, eg: Lebanese لبناني ; Siamese سيامي;
- 18 -ist: member of a party, eg: socialist اشتراكي ; communist; zionist;
- 19 -ish: somewhat, eg: *yellowish* □ مصفر /مصفرة الى الصفرة /ضارب الى اللون البني . *belonging to*, eg: *Irish* ايرلندي , Swedish سويدي .
having the character of, eg: childish. طفولي
- 20 -ed : having, eg: *curved; granulated; pleted; isolated;*
- 21 -ist : member of a party, eg: *socialist, communist* ; occupation, eg: *dentist, geologist, cardiologist, economist.*
- 22 -ory : *mandatory, obligatory, explanatory.*
- 23 -ary : *pulmonary, voluntary,*
- 24 -ate : **affectionate, passionate, compassionate.*

u. adverb-forming derivational affixes:

- -ly: in a ... manner, eg: *quickly*
- -ward(s): manner, direction, eg: *backwards, forward, downward*
- -wise: as far as is ... concerned, eg: *moneywise*; in the manner of, eg: **crabwise*

5. Translation of Arabic

Compounding



Compounds are groups of two or more elements treated as a unit. They consist of two or more bases joined together without the use of derivational affixes. Compounds are either primary or secondary. In a primary compound or base-compound, two bases (derivationally bound forms) are joined together. In a secondary compound or stem-compound, both or all of the constituents of the compound are stems (free forms). Many derived forms are very complex, involving two or more layers of derivation. (Hall). The formation of larger compounds is generally based on those of two-element compounds as lighthousekeeper is constructed from housekeeper and light (house).

Adjectives may be embedded in nominal constructions with no special marker (black coffee). For analyzing embedded constructions, the term head is used to refer to the center of the construction, the term attribute for the modifier. (Lehmann). An endocentric construction is one in which the primary constituent or constituents are comparable to the complete construction. An exocentric construction is one in which the primary constituent or constituents do not function like the complete construction (Lehmann). The contrast between endocentric and exocentric is present in compounds as well as in derivatives. If the function of the compound is the same as that of one of its elements, it is to be classed as endocentric. If the compound belongs to a form-class or subdivision of one different from that of its elements, then it is exocentric. (Hall).

The description of English and Arabic compounds will entail listing both types of primary and secondary compounds, and the elements comprised in each. The list of compounds will include the presence of full stress on the first element, internal disjuncture /+ / and intermediate stress on the second element.

1. English Compounds

English primary and secondary compounds can be formed in a variety of ways: two nouns, a verb followed by a noun, a noun followed by a verb, a verb and a preposition, an adjective and a noun. In English, compound nouns are the most common, verb compounds

are not quite so common. Compounds will be described in terms of the word class to which the source items belong. (Burlin).

Sequences that we have to recognize as compounds may be written as a single word (agglutinated), may be hyphenated or separated by a space. No rules for that.

1.1 Primary Compounds (Neo-classical Compounds)

In a primary compound or a base compound, no derivational affix is involved and two bases (derivationally bound forms) are joined together (with or without some meaningless connecting element). Most examples occur in the English learned Graeco-Latin vocabulary (Hall). These elements, usually Greek or Latin in origin, and are termed combining forms by OED. These combining forms are treated as affixes because they are sometimes added to lexemes just like any other affix.

English primary compounds are formed from a large number of Greek and Latin bases. Some Greek and Latin prefixes are: *ambi-, ante-, anti-, arch-, bi-, circum-, counter-, de-, dis-, ex-, extra-, hyper-, hypo-, in-, inter-, intra-, intro-, mal-, mis-, mono-, multi-, non-, peri-, post-, pre-, pro-, quad-, re-, retro-, semi-, sub-, super-, syn-, trans-, tri-, ultra-, uni-, vice-*.

Some Greek bases (roots) are: *anthropo-, auto-, bibli-, chrom-, chrono-, demo-, derma-, dynamo-, geo-, glot-, gram-, graph-, heli-, hetero-, homo-, hydro-, hypno-, -itis, cosmo-, crypto-, litho-, cyclo-, logo-, mania, mega-, micro-, morpho-, nauti-, neo-, neuro-, ortho-, philo-, philo-, phono-, photo-, -polis, poly-, proto-, pseudo-, psych-, -scope, tele-, therm-, zoo-*.

some Latin roots are: *equ-, annus-, aqua, aud, brevis, cid-, carnis, celer, cent-, civi-, claudere, corpus, dentis, dexter, domus, donatus, duo, duplicare, fortis, genus, gratus, liber, lingua, luminis, magnus, mille, marinus, medius, nomen, pedis, plenus, populus, proximus, rectus, regula, sciens, sensus, solus, similis, tempor, vacuus, videre, vivere.*

- *appendicitis, sinusitis, bronchitis, tonsillitis.*
- *automatic, autonomous, automobile,*
- *autobiography*
- *subway, subterranean, submarine, subclass.*
- *television, telephoto, telegraph, telescope.*
- *photograph, photocopy, photosynthesis.*
- *cardiogram, cardioscope, cardiovascular,*
- *electrocardiogram.*
- *pathology, psychology, geology, biology, zoology.*

The meaning of a primary compound can be generally understood from the meaning of its parts.

Secondary Compounds

In a secondary compound or stem-compound, no derivational affix is involved, and the constituents of a derived stem are simply juxtaposed and both or all of the constituents of the compound are stems. English has at least one fairly widespread type of stem compound, in our combinations of noun plus verb such as baby-sit. many derived forms are very complex, involving two or more layers of derivation. (Hall). English secondary compounds are formed in a variety of ways: two nouns, a verb followed by a noun, a noun followed by a verb, a verb and a preposition, an adjective and a noun. Compound nouns are the most common, whereas verb compounds are not quite so common. (Burlin). English compounds will be classified (described) on the basis of the function they play in a sentence as nouns, verbs, adjectives or adverbs. The subclassification of compounds will be done by the form of the items that make up the compound (the word class to which the source items belong), because this type of classification will help focus on the semantic relationships within each of the categories provided. Compounds will be classified into compound nouns, compound verbs, compound adjectives and compound adverbs. Each kind of compound consists of a variety of components. (Bauer) the meaning of a secondary compound cannot be generally understood from the meaning of its parts.

Compound nouns may consist of:

Frank pp. 7-

- Noun + Noun: *post office, spaceship, high school, woman teacher, he-goat, dining-room, parking lot, student teacher, paper basket, self-expression, sunshine, bedroom, *department store, physics book.*
- *possessive noun _ noun: *lady's maid, traveler's checks, womens college, a citizens bank.*
- Verb + Noun: *jump rope, pickpocket, flashlight.*
- *Noun + Verb: *handshake, lifeguard.*
- *gerund + noun: *living room, swimming pool.*
- *noun + gerund: *fortune telling, housekeeping, ice skating*
- Adjective + Noun: *gold coin, well-wisher, off-white, high school, smallpox, *blackbird, *common sense, *blue print.*
- Particle + Noun: *off-year, by-product, overdose*
- Verb + prep/Adverb: *makeup, breakdown, grown-up.*
- *Noun + pp: *brother-in-law, commander-in-chief.*

Compound verbs

*Frank p. 51

The majority of compound verbs are not formed by putting two lexemes together to form a new verb, but by back-formations which have been coined by dropping an -er agent-denoting suffix such as **sleep-walk* (from the original *sleep-walker*), **baby-sit* (from the original *baby-sitter*); or by conversion from compound nouns such as *ill-treat* (from the original *ill-treatment*) (Adams + Frank), compounds formed of particles and verbs seem to be general verbal formations.

- Noun + Verb: *student teach, babysit, water skie, sleep-walk, sun-bathe,*
- Verb + Adjective: *double-check.*
- Particle + Verb: *overdo, outreach, overlook, upgrade.*
- *Adverb + Verb: *ill-treat, dry-clean, cold-shoulder.*

Compound adjectives may consist of:

*Frank p. 110-111.

- Noun+ Adjective: *water proof, sky blue, air-borne, nationwide,*
- Adjective + Adjective: *icy cold, easygoing, good-hearted,*
- Noun + Noun: *coffee-table,*
- Adjective + Noun:

- Particle + Noun:
- Noun + Verb:
- adjective/adverb+noun
- verb + particle:
- *noun + participle: *French-speaking, good-looking.*
- *adjective + past participle: *absent-minded, blue-eyed, near-sighted, short-tempered.*
- *pp : *a wall-to-wall carpet.*
- *infinitive: *a hard-to-please employer.*
- *coordinated elements: *a life-and-death struggle.*
- set phrases or especially coined phrases: *a get-rich-quick scheme*

*noun compounds may function as adjective compounds. Such compounds usually require hyphen as in: *-a high school girl, twentieth century literature.*

Compound adverbs such as: *in-sight, overnight,*

Rhyme-motivated compounds (Reduplicatives)

(Quirk)

Some compounds have two or more elements which are either identical or only slightly different, as in *goody-goody*. The difference between the two elements may be in the initial consonants, as in *walkie-talkie*, or in the medial vowels .eg: *criss-cross*. Most of the reduplicatives are highly informal or familiar, and many derive from the nursery, eg: *din-din* (dinner). Most common use of reduplicatives are:

- to imitate sound, eg: *tick-tock.*
- to suggest alternating movements, eg: *seesaw.*
- to disparage by suggesting instability, nonsense, insincerity, vacillation, eg: *higgledy-piggledy, wishy-washy.*
- to intensify, eg: *tip-top.*

2 The majority of this class are noun compounds made up of two nouns. In these compounds, the rhyme between the two elements is the major motivating factor in the formation, eg: *hickety-pickety, stun-gun, flower-power, gang-bang, nitty-gritty, brain-drain,*

Stress patterns of English compounds plural formation of compounds.

PHRASAL (SYNTACTIC)

endocentric

- adj + adj: bitter + sweet: *bitter-sweet*
- adj (verb participial head + adverb (attribute): *cast-off*

exocentric

- N = adj (attribute) + N (head): red-cap
- N = adj + adj: bitter-sweet
- N = N (possessive, attribute) + N (head): bull's-eye
- N = V (head) + N (object): lick-spittle
- N = V (head) + Pro (object): dreadnought
- N = V (head) + Adv (attribute): run about
- N = Adj (verb participle, head) + Adv (attribute): cast-away

NONPHRASAL (ASYNTACTIC)

endocentric

- N = N (attribute) + N (head): bus-ticket
- N = V (in Ing form, attribute) + N : swimming-pool.
- N = Adv (attribute) + N (head) : by-law
- Adj = n (attribute) + N (head): fire-proof
- Adj = N (attribute) + Vparticiple (head): fly-blown
- V = n (object) + Verb (head): baby-sit
- V = Adj (attribute) + V (head): dry-clean
- Adv = Indefinite Adj (attribute) + Adv (head): somewhere

Exocentric

- N = Adj (attribute) + n (head): long-legs
- N = N (object) + V (head): boot-black
- N = Adv (attribute) + V (head): out-crop
- Pro = Indefinite (attribute) + n (head): some-body
- Pro = indefinite (attribute) + numeral (head): some-one

2. Arabic Compounds

شاهين ص 092-192

Most Arabic compounds consist of lexical items separated by a blank such as: الحى الشوكية ، مكة المكرمة ، ابو بكر ، . Very few compounds are agglutinated (spelled together) such as ، بعلبك ، بختنصر ، حضرموت ، بينما ، لئلا ، لكنما ، انما ، معديكرب ، طولكرم ، التركيب المزجى . No compounds in Arabic are hyphenated. Arabic compound nouns may be classified into the following classes:

2.1 Primary Compounds

Primary compounds similar to English compounds consisting of Greek and Latin bases do not exist in Arabic.

2.2 Secondary Compounds

A compound refers to a group of words usually two –but sometimes more-joined together into one vocabulary unit that functions as a single part of speech. Arabic compounds consist of the following composite forms (Frank p. 7).

2.3 COMPOUND NOUNS:

- Noun + apposited noun:
This group of compounds cover the following: - personal proper nouns:
ابو بكر ، عبد الله ، محى الدين ، ذى يزن ، ام هانى ، ام كلثوم ، امرؤ القيس ، شجرة الدر ،
- Geographical names:
دير ياسين ، كفر الشيخ ، خميس مشيط ، مكة المكرمة ، بيت لحم ، عين جالوت ، شرم الشيخ ، عين الحلوة ، رأس تنورة ، بحيرة طبريا ، جزر الفلبين ، خط الاستواء ، تل الزعتر ، مدار السرطان
- Titles and
امين العاصمة ، امير المؤمنين ، رئيس الجمهورية ، رئيس الوزراء ، اركان حرب ، وزير الخارجية ، مديرالجامعة ، النائب العام ، قاضى القضاة ، نائب الرئيس ، وكيل الوزارة ، وكيل النيابة

- Others
حفيظة نفوس ، ناطحة سحاب ، مجلس النواب ، سفينة فضاء ، ابن اوى ،
رب الاسرة ، جراد البحر ، بساط الريح ، عباد الشمس ، مركب نقص ،
تطبيع العلاقات ، اسطول جوي ، شركة طيران ، حملة انتخابية ، ناطق
رسمي،
- Compounds numarals
ثلاث عشر ، اثنان وعشرون
- Noun + adjective
These are very productive in Arabic ,as in the following:
- Geographical names
الاتحاد السوفياتي، بريطانيا العظمى، الولايات المتحدة الامريكية ، المحيط
الهادي البحر الاحمر، الشرق الاقصى، الجزائر البريطانية القطب الجنوبي ،
التحول الديموقراطي
- Subject names:
الفيزياء النووية ، علاج طبيعي ، طب شعبي ،
- Other technical terms
الامعاء الدقيقة، الشعيرات الدموية، نزلة شعبية، نزلة صدرية، انزلاق
غضروفي، حديث قديسي، الهجرة النبوية، طائرة نفاثة، سلم متحرك،
ميناء جوي، ادوات صحية، طبق طائر، ميناء جوي، حكم ذاتي، رد فعل،
شبه جزيرة، سلم متحرك، الادب الجاهلي، العصور الوسطى،
العصرالوسيط، المجلس النيابي، الامم المتحدة، النيابة العامة المجلس
النيابي،
- Noun + apposited noun + adjective
جمهورية مصر العربية، اتحاد الجمهوريات السوفياتية الاشتراكية، بطاقة
الصرف الالكتروني ، وسائل الاتصال الجماهيرية.
- Noun + apposited N. + apposited N:
قوة حفظ السلام ، رئيس مجلس الوزراء ،
- Particle + noun

The negative particle لا is used as a prefix, making possible the creation of words like:

لافلزات، لازهري، لاشعور، لاسؤولية، اللاوجود، لاسامية، لاسلكي، لانظام، لانهائي، لامحدود، لاجنسي، لادرية، اللاغد، لاتناظري، لأخلاقي، لامائي، لاشيء، لامنهجي، لاصفي، لاوعي، لامبالاه، اللاسياسية، لاتزاوجي، لاتزامل، لامتزامن، لامعكوسية، لاجفن، الماجريرات، الماصدق.

- Particle + pronoun
ماهية

VERBAL COMPOUNDS

These are very few verb compounds in Arabic. The following examples : جاد الرب، جاد المولى، رام الله، تأبطشرا، سر من رأى

COMPOUND ADVERBS:

Adverb + particle: حيثما، اينما، حينئذ، وقتئذ

Compound Particles:

مما، لكنما، لئلا، ممن، فيمن، عمن، عما، طالما، ألا، ايما، حينما، ريثما، كلما، لئن.

التركيب الاتباعي Rhyme-Motivated Compounds

اهلا وسهلا، كل من هب ودب، كثير بثير، بثير بذير، هرج ومرج، تعد معد، حيص بيص، حسن بسن، ساغب لاغب، خراب يباب (شاهين).

Arabic compounds have a gender assignment.

The plural formation of compound nouns.compounds can often be identified whenever their inflectional characteristics differ from those of the elements of which they are formed.

stress assignment

3. Comparison

English makes extensive use of compounding; Arabic very limited use. Arabic compounds are phrases with normal word-order, compressed into two or three lexical items. Those patterns of compounds that exist in Arabic are not particularly productive in

making new formations. These patterns are outside the ordinary derivational structure of Arabic.

4. Translation from English

a Before translating primary compounds into Arabic, the student can break up each compound into its component parts, i.e., the roots, prefixes and suffixes; determine the meaning of each component and then determine the meaning of the whole term by adding up the meanings of all the components starting from the end backwards. The following are examples:

- *appendicitis* = *appendi* + *c* + *itis* =
التهاب + زائدة = التهاب الزائدة
- *photosynthesis* = *photo* + *synthesis* =
تركيب + ضوء = تركيب ضوئي
- *cardiovascular* = *cardi* + *o* + *vascul* + *ar*
متعلق بـ + اوعية + قلب
- *pathology* = *patho* + *logy* =
علم + مرض = علم الامراض
- *geology* = *geo* + *logy*
علم + ارض = علم الارض
- *autobiography* = *auto* + *bio* + *graphy*
كتابة + حياة + ذات = كتابة السيرة الذاتية

b. Although compounds are made up of two or more parts each of which may be used as a separate word, but they are used as single terms. English compound verbs whether they consist of N+V, V+Adj, Particle +V, Adv+ V should be translated by a verb: *student teach* يتدرب على التدريس ، *babysit* ، يرعى طفل ، *water ski* يتزلج ، على الماء ، *sleep-walk* ينام اثناء النوم ، *sunbathe* ، يتشمس ، *double-check* /يستلقي في الشمس ، يتأكد ، *overdo* ، يببالغ في عمل ، *upgrade* ، يرفع الدرجة ، *ill-treat* ، يسهو عن *overlook* ، يمد يده لـ *outreach* ، ينظف على الناشف *dry-clean* .The morphemes -s, -ing, -ed, -er are added to the second element of the verb compounds. The majority of compound verbs are not formed by putting two lexemes together to form a new verb, but by back-formations or conversion from compound nouns

(Adams), compounds formed of particles and verbs seem to be general verbal formations.

- c. English compound adverbs are translated into prepositional phrases:
overnight; in-sight · في مدى الرؤية
- d. English rhyme-motivated compounds are not translated word for word; their connotative meaning is translated, eg: hickety-pickety; stun-gun; flower-power; gang-bang; nitty-gritty; brain-drain.
- e. English compound nouns and compound adjectives should be translated as a unit regardless of the class of the components of the compound. The Arabic equivalent to English compound nouns should be a noun and to compound adjective should be a modifier. Sometimes the equivalent is a compound noun or a compound modifier and sometimes it is a single word.

- In some compounds one element modifies the other. The modifying element may precede or it may follow t. In most English compounds the first element modifies the second. Differing classes may occupy either position in the compound, a noun as in woman teacher; an adjectives as in greenhouse; a pronoun as in shegoat; a verb as in racehorse. When translating a compound, begin by translating the second element. The first word is the qualifier and the second is the head.:

flower garden حديقة زهور
garden flower زهرة حديقة

race horse حصان سباق
horse race سباق خيل

woman teacher مدرسة
greenhouse بيت محمي

village green خضرة الريف

قرية خضراء *green village*

نوع من المدارس في بريطانيا *Grammar school*
القواعد (كمادة) التي تدرس في المدرسة *school grammar*

(*Eckersley p. 21-22)

- f. The meaning of some compounds cannot be determined from either component but lies outside the center of the compound. An external element must be added to interpret the compound. For example, *a greenback* is not ‘*a back that is green*’ but rather ‘*an object that possesses a green back*’, usually a *dollar bill*; similarly *blockhead*, *tenderfoot*, *whiteface*. In English such compounds reflect lack of compassion, as do *redneck*, *baldhead*, *bigmouth*, *blue-eyed*, *good-hearted*, and *absent-minded*
- g. Compounds may be usefully interpreted in relationship to other syntactic patterns of the language.
- h. The meanings compounds convey to us come more from the experience of hearing them together than from our ability to analyze them into separate parts.
- i. The compound may precede the noun it refers to (*a ten-year-old boy*) or follow the noun (*a boy ten years old*).
- j. The first problem in dealing with compounds is how to distinguish phrasal compounds from simple phrases. Recourse must be had to additional non-syntactic features such as prosodic characteristics of stress, pitch or juncture, the use of special forms of the constituent elements, or the possibility of either interrupting the construction or expanding it by the addition of further modifiers. In languages that have stress systems, there are often special patterns of modulation signalling compounds as such. The presence of the juncture-phenomena (internal disjuncture) assists in identifying compounds.

- k. It is single stress that differentiates compound nouns from word groups. In word groups both elements take stress, eg 'gold 'chain, 'Oxford 'University, 'woman 'doctor, if the group consists of more than two words, each word receives primary stress: 'Tottenham 'Court 'Road.
Eckersley p. 21.

Context helps in the translation of compounds: inflection, concord or of government, word orders are important in determining the meaning of a compound.

5. Translation From Arabic

- a Arabic compound nouns that consist of a noun and an apposited noun cannot be translated into English. Such nouns are only transliterated. In Most proper names, both elements of the compound are capitalized: أبو بكر *Abu Bakr*; عبد الله *Abdulla*; محي الدين *Muhyiddin*; ذي يزن *Thee Yazan*; ام هاني *Om Hani*; ام كلثوم *Om Kulthoom*; امرؤ القيس *Mru'ul-kays*; شجرة الدر *Shajaratu -DDurr*.
- b Arabic compound geographical names are translated into their English equivalent: جزر الفلبين *The Philliphine*, خط الاستواء *the Equator*, مدار السرطان *the Tropic of Cancer*, بحيرة طبريا *Tabariyya Lake*, دير ياسين *Dair yaseen*, كفر الشيخ *Kafr Al-Shaikh*, خميس مشيط *Khamis Mushait*, مكة المكرمة *Holy Makkah*, بيت لحم *Bethlehem*, عين جالوت *Ein Jaloot*, شرم الشيخ *Sharm El-Shaikh*. An atlas or a gazeteer may be consulted to find out the English equivalent. Geographical name are usually capitalized. Both elements of the compound should be capitalized.
- c Arabic compounds that refer to titles and rankes are translated into their English equivalent titles and ranks. Literary translation should not be used here.
رئيس الوزراء *mayor*, رئيس الجمهورية *president*, امين العاصمة

prime minister, وزير الخارجية *general staff*, اركان حرب *foreign minister*, النائب العام *president of the university*, مدير الجامعة *public prosecutor*, وكيل *chief judge*, قاضي القضاة *vice-president*, النيابة *under-secretary*, وكيل وزارة

- d. *other Arabic compounds that consist of a noun + an apposited noun may have a single word equivalent or a compound:* *skyscraper* ناطحة سحاب *identity card* حفيظة نفوس *spaceship* سفينة فضاء *House of Representatives* مجلس النواب *jackal* ابن عباد *head of the family* رب الاسرة *inferiority complex* مركب نقص *sunflower* تطبيع العلاقات *naturalize relationships* جراد البحر *crayfish* flying carpet *طبيع الشمس*
- e. *Arabic geographical names that consist of a noun + an adjective or a noun + apposited noun + adjective are translated into their English equivalent geographical name:* *The Soviet Union* بريطانيا *The United States of America* الولايات المتحدة الامريكية *The Pacific Ocean* المحيط الهادي *The Red Sea* البحر الاحمر *The British Isle* الجزر البريطانية *The Far East* الشرق الاقصى *The South Pole* القطب الشمالي
- f. *Arabic compounds consisting of a noun+an apposited noun+ adjective are translated into their English equivalent geographical names or technical terms:* *Arab Republic of Egypt* جمهورية مصر العربية *Union of the Soviet socialist Republics* بطاقة الاشتراكية *instant access card* وسائل الاتصال الجماهيرية *mass media* *الصرف الالكتروني*
- g. *Arabic nouns consisting of N + apposited N + Apposited N are translated as follows:* *prime minister*. *قوة حفظ* *peace-keeping force* *رئيس مجلس الوزراء*
- h. *Arabic compounds consisting of the particle لا + N are translated by different negative prefixes as*

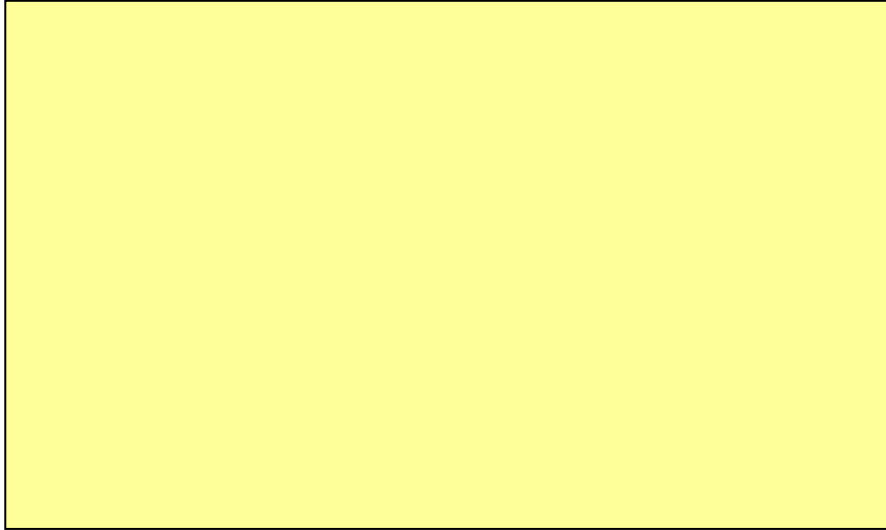
follows: اللافلزات *non-metals*; اللامسؤولية *irresponsibility*; اللاسامية *anti-semitism*; اللاسلكي *wireless*; *indefinite*; *endless*; لا جنسي *asexual*, اللادرية *agnosticism*; لامتناظر *asymmetrical*; اللأخلاقية *immorality*; لامترامن *asynchronic*; لاصفي لامنهجي *extra-curricular*; اللاشعور *subconscious*.

- i. Arabic compounds consisting of a particle + N are not translated into the equivalent particle and the equivalent pronoun, but the equivalent meaning. Thus, ماهية is translated into essence.
- j. Arabic verbal compounds (predicative compounds) that represent proper names cannot be translated into English, they are transliterated only: جاد الرب *Jadar-rabbu*; جاد المولى *Jadal-mawla*; رام الله *Ramallah*; تأبط شراً *Ta'abbata Sharran*; سر من رأى *Surra Man Ra'aa*.
- k. Arabic compounds adverbs have no equivalent compound adverbs, but what is translated is their meaning: حيثما اينما *wherever*; وقتئذ حينئذ ، *then, at that time*.
- l. Arabic compound particles are not translated into English compound particles, but what is translated is the meaning of the particle. مما *of which*; لكنما *but*; لئلا *lest should*; ممن *of which*; عمن *whoever*; عما ، فيمن *of what, about*; طالما *as long as*; ألا *that, not to*; ايما *whoever*; حينما *whenever*; ريثما *until*; كلما *whenver, the more* لئن *if*. The context helps in determining the meaning of each compound particle. Any Arabic dictionary of particles should be consulted for the meaning of each particle. Some particles are translated by relative pronoun some by a conditional conjunction, and others by
- m. Arabic rhyme-motivated compounds are not translated word for word. The connotative meaning of the compound is translated into English. To find out the meaning of such rhyme-motivated compounds, Arabic

dictionaries xxxxx of should be consulted. Thus ، حيص بيص ،
حركاتي *in a dilemma*; خراب يياب، حسن بسن ، ساغب لاغب
وسكناتي *my whereabouts*.

- n. **Sine** compounds may be written as two separate words, as hyphenated, or spelled as two separate words, a good dictionary should be consulted if there is doubt about how a compound is spelled (Frank p. 8).
- o. In speech many noun compounds are stressed on the first part of the compound (*arm'chair*), other noun compounds receive a double stress on both elements (*'woman 'teacher*).

Word-Formation Processes



1. Acronyms

Acronyms are words formed from the initial letters of words in a phrase. new acronyms are freely produced, particularly for names of organizations. Acronyms pronounced as sequences of letters are called alphabetisms. The letters may represent full words : U.S.A. ==> United States of America; or they represent elements in a compound or just parts of a word, eg: T.V. ==> television, GHQ General Headquarters. Many acronyms are pronounced as words, eg: NASA, laser. (Quirk,

English Examples :

NASA, UNESCO, Radar, Laser, USA, UN, USSR, RBC, T.B.,

Arabic examples:

In arabic some acronyms are found in the Koran such as: حم ، طس ، يس ، طه كهيعص . Other acronyms that exist in Modern Standard Arabic like ، الونيسيف ، الناتو ، الاوابك ، ارامكو ، الونيسكو are borrowed from English.

2. Abbreviations

An abbreviation is created when a single term is not written in its full form, but a certain part (a letter or letters) of the term is omitted.

English Examples :

k.m. (kilometer); c.m. (centimeter); (Eng. (English); bldg. (building); P.O. Box (Post Office Box); temp. (temperature); p. (page); rdg. (reading); comp. (comprehension).

English Examples :

not very productive

م/ث (متر في الثانية) ، كم/سا (كيلومتر في الساعة) ، ش (شارع) ، ص (صفحة) ، م (مهندس) ، (استاذة) ، (دكتور) ، أ.د. (الاستاذ الدكتور)، يد (هيدروجين) ، ح د. أ.

(حديد) ، نح (نحاس) ، أ (اكسجين) ، فو (فوسفور) ، ن (نتروجين) ، نق (نصف قطر) ، ط (النسبة التقريبية) ، م (متر) ، كغم (كيلوغرام) ، دسم (ديسمتر) ، سم (سنتيمتر) ، كم (كيلومتر) ، ق.م. (قبل الميلاد) ، ش.م.ك. (شركة مساهمة كويتية) ، ج.م.ع. (جمهورية مصر العربية) ، ر.س. (ريال سعودي) ، د.ك. (دينار كويتي)، واس (وكالة الانباء السعودية) ، وفا (وكالة الانباء الفلسطينية) ، 101 عرب (اللغة العربية) ، 111 نجل (اللغة الانجليزية) ، 202 كيم (الكيمياء)

3. Word Coinage=neologisms=word manufacture

a neologism is a new word or a new meaning for established words (Webster).

English

A new word can be coined (created) out right (with no morphological, phonological, or orthographic motivation whatsoever)

to fit some purpose. Specific brand names are now often used as the general name for many brands of the actual product. *Kodak, nylon, Dacron, xerox, Vaseline, Frigidaire, kleenex, Jell-o, thermos, teflon.* Computer programs have been used to provide new names which do not have etymologies. (Bauer).

Arabic :

neologisms existing in arabic are borrowed.

بامبرز ، نيدو ، كلينكس

4. Blends

Blends are compounds created by clipping and blending elements of a complex term. Many blends have only a short life and are very informal, but some have become more or less fully accepted in the language. (Quirk)

English

Calitech (California Technical Institute), *brunch* (brekfast + lunch), *smog* (smoke + fog), *motel* (motor + hotel), *transistor* (transfer + resistor), *Eurasia* (Europe and Asia),

Arabic

شاهين

كهروطيسي (كهربيائي ومغناطيسي) ، افرواسيوي (افريقي واسيوي) ، اوراسيا (اوروبا وآسيا) ، ضبخن (ضباب ودخان) ، سرمن (سار اثناء النوم) ، متشاجه (تشابه جهة) ، حسبل (حسبي الله) ، حوقل (لا حول ولا قوة الا بالله) ، بسمل (بسم الله) ، فذلك (فذلك كذا) ، حمدل (الحمد لله) ، سبجل (سبحان الله) ، حيعل (حي على الصلاة) ، عبدري (عبد الدار) ، تعبشم ، عبشمسي (عبد شمس) ، تعبقس ، عبقيسي (عبد القيس) ، ضبطر (ضبط وضبر) ، صهلق (صهل وصلق) ، صلدم (صلد و صدم) ، خرمش (خرم و شرم) ، برقس (برق ونقس) ، برقع (برق ورقع) .

The adverbs **فوق ، بين ، تحت ، قبل ، غب** are used as a prefix

غجليدي ، غبلوغ ، غبمدرسي ، قبتاريخ ، قبمنطقي ، قبيلوغ ،
قبمهنية ، تحجري ، بيخلوي ، بيجلي ، بيقاري ، فونفسجي

5. Back-formations

Back-formations are the creation of derived word forms by analogy, either by dropping an affix, or by creating a new base form:

English

peddler, peddle; editor, edit; hawker, hawk; New York, New Yorker; author, auth; enthusiasm, enthused; pease, pea; television, televise; donation, donate;

Arabic

Very productive

(باب) بوب ، فهرس فهرس ، (تلفزيون) تلفز ، (فوج) فوج ، (قانون) تقنين
مقنن قنن ، كهرباء ، مكهرب ، كهرب ، (برنامج) ميرمج ، برمجة ، برمج ، (بستان)
بستن ، (شجرة) شجر ، (سوق) تسوق ،

6. Shortening (clipping)

Clipping denotes the subtraction of one or more syllables from a word. The clipped form tends to be used in informal style.

English

- shortening may occur at the beginning of the word as in *phone* ==> *telephone, airplane, plane* ;
- at the end of the word as in *photo* ==> *photograph mathematics, math; gymnasium, gym; pianoforte, piano; saxophone, sax; facsimile, fax;* ;
- or at both ends as in *flu* ==> *influenza*.

Arabic

Shortening is not very common in Arabic. Syllables cannot be subtracted from arabic words except in the following cases:

قاض	قاضي
كتابا الولد	كتابان
معلمو المدرسة	معلمون
لم يدرسوا	يدرسون

لم يكتب	يكتبان
حليم	عبد الحليم
منعم	عبد المنعم
مكة	مكة المكرمة

Phrases can be shortened into single words. This is most common in informal speech.

العويس ==> سوق العويس
الأداب ==> كلية الآداب
التخصصي ==> المستشفى التخصصي
المملكة العربية السعودية ==> السعودية
مكة المكرمة ==> مكة

7. Extention

New words may be formed from already existing words, which appear to be analysable, i.e., composed of more than one morpheme.

English

television: televise; general: generalize, generalization, generalizable, generalizability; grammar: grammatical, grammaticality, grammaticalization;

Arabic

جمع: جمعية ، جامعة ، مجمع ، مصنع تجميع.
حسي: كشف حساب ، حاسب ، آلة حاسبة ، محاسب ، محاسبة ، محاسبية،
محاسبي حسب: حاسوب ، حاسب الي.
اكسجين: اكسيد ، اكسيدات ، اكاسيد ، اكسدة ، تأكسد ، مؤكسد ، مؤكسد.

8. Conversion

Quirk

Conversion is the derivational process by which an item changes its word-class without the addition of an affix.

- verb ==> Noun
**doubt, *love, *laugh, *walk, *catch, *cheat, *wrap, *throw, *walk, *retreat, *turn.*

- adjective ==> Noun
**daily, *comic, *young, new-borns,*
- Noun ==> Verb
**bottle, price, *corner, *mask, *peel, *brake, *knife, *nurse, *referee, *cash, *mail, *ship, *motor, wrap.*
- Adjective ==> verb
**calm, *dirty, *empty.*
- non-count N ==> count N
two coffees, a difficulty
- proper ==> common
a mercedes, a Shakespeare, a Freudian, It is Greek to me.
- intransitive ==>transitive
run, walk.
- transitive to intransitive
wash, open,
- in some cases, conversion is approximate rather than complete, i.e. a word, in the course of changing its grammatical function, may undergo a slight change of pronunciation or spelling. The most important kinds of alteration are voicing of final consonants as in *advice=> advise, thief=> thief, => sheath=> sheathe, house=> house* and shift of stress as in *conduct, conflict, contrast, convert, convict, export, extract, import, insult, permit, present, produce, rebel, record*. When verbs or two syllables are converted into nouns, the stress is sometimes shifted from the second to the first syllable.

Arabic

While conversion is an extremely productive way of producing new words in English, Arabic makes no use of conversion. It is outside the ordinary derivational structure of Arabic.

9. Onomatopoeia

It is a modified type of coining in which a word is formed as an imitation of some natural sound associated with the object or action involved. It involves a model that serves as the basis for the new word, but unlike those of other processes, the onomatopoeic model is extralinguistic - it lies outside of language itself. Words that represent animal noises were originally attempts to imitate natural sounds.

English

tinkle, buzz, pop, moo, bow-wow, mew, chickadee

Arabic

مواء القط ، خرير الماء ، ازيز الطائرات ، نباح الكلب ، عواء الذئب ، زئير الاسد ، خوار البقر ، خشخشة الحلبي ، دوي □ المدافع بربر ، ثرثر ، جرجر ، خرخر ، شرشر ، صرصر ، فرفر ، كركر ، قهقهه ، دلدل ، جلجل خلخل ، زلزل ، سلسل ، صلصل ، غلغل ، قلقل ، فلفل ، دمدم ، زمزم ، شمشم ، عمعم ، كمكم ململ ، لعلع ، دغدغ ،

10. Borrowings

Borrowings (transferred terms) are linguistic units introduced into a language from another language. This happens when for the new concept no term is available or can be easily formed. Borrowed terms can be borrowed from the same language or from another language. Borrowings from foreign languages can be :

- a. a direct transfer of a term as it is
- b. a loan translation
- c. a loan word.

English

- Borrowings from common language:
bed, envelope, cell, nut, crane, wing, conjunction, current,
- borrowings from foreign languages:
Ar: algebra , alkali , arsenal, almanac.
L: bacteria , strata , data , axis , focus.

Fr: machine , technique , attache.
 It: pizza , spaghetti , balcony , corridor.
 Rus: tsar , rouble , tundra , sputnik.
 Per: coffee , fez , kiosk , tulip , caravan.
 Ger: dock , monsoon , reef , yacht.

Arabic

- Borrowings from common language:
 مجتمع ، جامعة ، مجمع ، دعاية ، يعالج ، خلية ، جناح ، تصفية ، وارد ،
 صادر ، تطورات ، سياسة ، طيران ، قومية ، اتجاهات ، تيار
- Borrowings from foreign languages
 هليوكتبر ، كمبيوتر ، تلفزيون ، باص ، هرمون ، انزيم ، تلفون ، بكتيريا ، فيروس ،
 هيموجلوبين ، انسولين ، اكسجين ، تكنولوجيا ، فيلم ، كاميرا ، فيديو ، كاسيت ،
 الكترون ، سيتوبلازم ، بلازما ، لوكيميا ، انيميا ، تراخوما ، بوليس ،
- Loan Words
 استراتيجية ، بستر ، برنامج ، بركان ، برلمان ، ورشة
- loan translation
 It is a way of creating new vocabulary items by translating the
 morphemes of foreign words into native morphemes.
 حرفيم ، صوتيم ، شايين ، قهوين ، لانظام ، لامعقول ، بيخلوي ، قبتاريخي ، غبيلوغ
 ، تحجري ، كبريتوز ، كبريتيك ، نترك ، كربونيك ، فوسفوريك ، حديدوز ، حديدك ،
 نحاسوز ، نحاسيك

11. periphrasis

بطاقة الصرف الالكتروني ، وسائل الاعلام والاتصال الجماهيرية ، التحول
 الديمقراطي ، تطبيع العلاقات ، قوة حفظ السلام ، اعادة انتشار القوات .
 stem. a stem= when inflectional elements have been taken away from a
 form, what is left is a

morphology consists of two layers: an outer one involving
 inflectionally bound forms and an inner one the layer of derivation.

a stem consisting of more than one morpheme is termed a
 derived stem. These, in their turn, break down into primary and
 secondary derived stems. In both of these types we distinguish
 between derivatives, which are formed by the use of affixes of one

type or another, and compounds, in which two or more elements are joined together without the use of derivational affixes.

PRIMARY DERIVATIVES PRIMARY COMPOUNDS

receive telegraph

SECONDARY DERIVATIVES SECONDARY
COMPOUNDS

manly baby-sit

primary means not involving a stem, i.e., involving forms which are bound on the derivational level; secondary means involving one or more stems, i.e., forms which are themselves susceptible of use in inflection.

In a primary derivative, none of its constituent element is a stem, but one is a derivational affix, and the other is a derivationally bound form termed a base. Primary derivatives are widespread in our learned vocabulary of Greek and Latin origin as in receive, deceive, conceive. In a secondary derivation, one of its immediate constituents is a stem, and the other is a derivational affix of some derivational formations as in manly, attractive.

If no derivational affix is involved, and the constituents of a derived stem are simply juxtaposed-with or without some meaningless connecting element-the formation is a compound. If two bases (derivationally bound forms) are joined together in this way, we have a primary compound or base-compound. Most of our examples of this kind occur in our learned Graeco-Latin vocabulary, as in telegraph. If both or all of the constituents of the compound are stems, we have a secondary compound or stem-compound. English has at least one fairly widespread type of stem compound, in our combinations of noun plus verb such as baby-sit.

many derived forms are very complex, involving two or more layers of derivation. (Hall).

Before translating an English compound into Arabic, it would be helpful if the student identifies the type of compound. There are four types of compounds: coordinate, subordinate, possessive, and synthetic. Coordinate compounds consist of two parallel elements in

which one element is repeated, eg: pitter-patter, flim-flam. Some coordinate compounds are additive as in thirteen 'three' and 'ten'. The Arabic equivalent to English coordinate compounds would be:

pitter-patter:

flim-flam:

thirteen: ثلاث عشرة

In subordinate compounds one element modifies the other. The modifying element may precede or it may follow. Differing classes may occupy either position in the compound, a noun as in woman teacher; an adjective as in greenhouse; a pronoun as in shegoat; a verb as in racehorse. Most English compounds are subordinate with the first element modifying the second. The Arabic equivalent to English subordinate compounds would be a noun + a modifier: high school مدرسة ثانوية

In possessive compounds, an external element must be added to interpret the compound. For example, a greenback is not a back of a given color but rather an object that possesses a green back, usually a dollar bill; similarly blockhead, tenderfoot, whiteface. In English such compounds reflect lack of compassion, as do redneck, baldhead, bigmouth. The meaning of possessive compounds cannot be determined from either component but lies outside the center of the compound. blue-eyed, good-hearted, absent-minded,

Compounds may be usefully interpreted in relationship to other syntactic patterns of the language.

Synthetic compounds are compact expressions. But they are commonly shortened in some way, eg: pickpocket reflects a sentence like 'he picks pockets'. Compounds may reflect syntactic structures of various types: typical sentence patterns, sentence patterns with the 'have' relationship, sentence patterns with attributive relationships. (Lehmann)

adjectives may be embedded in nominal constructions with no special marker (black coffee). For analyzing embedded constructions, the term head is used to refer to the center of the construction, the term

attribute for the modifier. (Lehmann)

an endocentric construction is one in which the primary constituent or constituents are comparable to the complete construction. An exocentric construction is one in which the primary constituent or constituents do not function like the complete construction. (Lehmann)

Through substitution replacements or substitutes, often called pro-forms, may stand for the central entities of basic patterns. Substitutes may be used in basic patterns or when basic patterns are added to one another. Occasionally the replacement for an entity may be zero, as in I like this tie better than that one. As substitutes for nouns, pronouns are used in many languages. Substitutes may also be used for verbs. (Lehmann)

Constructions may also exhibit indications of interrelationships through inflection or other patterns involving selection; these indications are the result of concord or of government phenomena. Government is the determination of one form by another. Verbs and prepositions govern specific forms in English. (Lehmann)

The first problem in dealing with compounds is how to distinguish phrasal compounds from simple phrases. Recourse must be had to additional non-syntactic features such as prosodic characteristics of stress, pitch or juncture,

the use of special forms of the constituent elements,

or the possibility of either interrupting the construction or expanding it by the addition of further modifiers.

In languages that have stress systems, there are often special patterns of modulation signalling compounds as such.

The presence of the juncture-phenomena (internal disjuncture) assists in identifying compounds. compounds are normally unsplittable and cannot be fully expanded. 'beware' and 'be very aware'.

in languages with extensive inflectional systems and use of stem-vowels, compounds are frequently distinguished by use of special connecting vowels.

in languages with extensive inflectional systems, compounds can often be identified whenever their inflectional characteristics differ from those of the elements of which they are formed. No matter what the gender or plural formation of the noun comprising the second element of such a compound, the compound as a whole is always masculine and invariable, thus setting it apart morphologically from its component forms.

The contrast between endocentric and exocentric is present in compounds as well as in derivatives. If the function of the compound is the same as that of one of its elements, it is to be classed as endocentric. if the compound belongs to a form-class or subdivision of one different from that of its elements, then it is exocentric. (Hall).

The compound may precede the noun it refers to (a ten-year-old boy) or follow the noun (a boy ten years old).

the meanings they convey to us come more from the experi

Exercises



- [1] Transliterate the following English words, then give 3 changes that took place in pronouncing and transliterating those words.
1. microfilm
 2. manganese
 3. Pasteur
 4. Czechoslovakia
- [2] *Translate the following singular and plural nouns:*
- a. parentheses
 - b. a flock of geese
 - c. economics
 - d. crew

- e. lady doctor
- f. stimuli
- g. دجاجات
- h. دجاج
- i. عجوز
- j. الكشاف

[5] *Translate the following proper nouns:*

- a. الرئيس لتكولن
- b. نهر التايمز
- c. كوكب عطارد .
- d. the Midland Bank
- e. Christianity
- f. The Geneva Convention

[6] Translate the following Arabic compounds , then give a rule for translating this type of compounds.

- 1. سكرتير عام .
- 2. مدير عام .
- 3. طبيب عام .
- 4. مفتش عام .
- 5. تعليم عام

[7] Translate the following neologisms, blends, abbreviations, back-formations, and borrowings. (5 marks)

- 1. B.A. .2corp.
- 3. lb. .4POW
- 5. xerox نق
- 6. نق
- 7. ط. حيوي
- 8. ط. حيوي
- 9. تيار كهربائي
- 10. برمانيات

[8] Give 5 Arabic titles used for kings , presidents, ministers, princes, administrators ...etc. and their English equivalents. (5 marks)

[9] Translate the following Arabic names of instruments. Examine them and their English equivalents and give a rule that explains when such Arabic terms are coined . (8 marks)

1. آلة تسجيل
2. آلة تصوير
3. آلة حاسبة
4. آلة كتابة
5. آلة تصوير المستندات
6. آلة الجر

[10] Translate the following derived words, then give rules that help in translating words containing the affix {en}. (7 marks)

1. enrich
2. enclose
2. oxen
4. brethren
5. sadden
6. darken
7. wooden
8. silken

[11] Translate the underlined English idioms in standard Arabic:
(5 marks)

1. He is every inch a gentleman.
2. Yes, that goes without saying.
3. It was so dark. I couldn't tell who was who.
4. In my mind's eye.
5. She was a teacher that was liked by one and all.

[12] Translate the following Arabic idioms and clichés:
(5 marks)

1. رأيتُه بأَمِ عيني
2. بين المطرقة والسندان
3. القشة التي قصمت ظهر البعير
4. طبقت شهرته الأفاق
5. اخذ بيد فلان

[13] Give 2 Arabic meanings for each ambiguous sentence below :
(4 marks)

1. John finally decided on the boat.
2. The governor is a dirty street fighter.

[14] Translate the following sentences . Pay attention to verb tense, mood, aspect ...etc. (5 marks)

1. Don't ever open that door.
2. He wouldn't have anyone think badly of him.
3. I didn't use to get tired when I played tennis.
4. Could he have missed the train.
5. That he had failed once was no indication that he would fail again.

[15] Translate the underlined social formulas: (2 marks)

1. Goodness! I've just remembered. I've promised to meet a friend in five minutes. I'm afraid I really must to go. I'm sorry. "Bye.
2. Why don't you come with us? there'll be tea and cookies. Oh! what a shame -- I am going to be somewhere else.

[16] Give the Arabic equivalent for each of the following cultural points: (2 marks)

1. Coffee drinking is very casual, often served without a saucer.

2. Social security is a branch of the federal Department of Health , Education and Welfare.

[17] The following English adjectives have no comparative and superlative forms. Do their Arabic equivalents have comparative forms. When ? Why?(7 marks)

1. perfect
2. unique
3. monthly
4. square
5. wooden

[18] There are a number of idiomatic constructions with the comparative . Give their Arabic equivalent. (3 marks)

1. Every day you are getting better and better.
2. he ran faster and faster.
3. his voice got weaker and weaker.

[19] Comparatives are used in clauses of proportion that express a proportionality or equivalence of tendency or

degree between two circumstances. Translate the following clauses of proportion and give rules that would help in translating such clauses. (5 marks)

1. The harder you work , the more you will be paid.
2. The more he gets, the more he wants.
3. The sooner that work is finished, the better.

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Five Short Stories

Alphonse Daudet

The Harvard Classics Shelf of Fiction, Vol. XIII, Part 4.

Selected by Charles William Eliot

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Biographical Note

ALPHONSE DAUDET was born at Nîmes in the south of France on May 13, 1840. His father was an unsuccessful silk manufacturer, and his boyhood was far from happy. After a period of schooling at Lyons, he became at sixteen usher in a school, but before the end of the following year he abandoned a profession in which he found only misery. Going up to Paris he joined his elder brother, Ernest, who was then trying to get a foothold in journalism. At eighteen he published a volume of poems, "Les Amoureuses," wrote for the "Figaro," and began experimenting with playwriting. He attracted the attention of the Duc de Morny, who made him one of his secretaries and in various ways helped him to a start in life.

His first notable success came in 1866 with his "Lettres de mon Moulin," a series of sketches and stories of great charm and delicacy, and this was followed up by a longer work, "Le petit chose," a

pathetic fiction based upon his own unhappy youth. In 1872 he produced the first of his three volumes on the amazing “Tartarin of Tarascon,” probably the most vital of all his creations. In “Fromont jeune et Risler aîné” he created another great character, Delobelle, the broken-down actor, and he took captive the reading world by his combination of humor and pathos, and the vividness of his portraits of types. Pathos was again the chief characteristic of “Jack,” in which the life of a neglected boy at a school which recalls the establishment of Mr. Squeers is not the only parallel between Daudet and Dickens.

Daudet was now a successful writer of established reputation, and through the seventies and eighties he wrote a succession of novels of a considerable variety of theme. Thus he dealt with the Paris of dethroned monarchs in “Les Rois en exil”; with new millionaires in “Le Nabab”; with the talkative type of his native South in “Numa Roumestan,” satirizing the statesman Gambetta; with the demimonde in “Sapho”; while in “L’Immortel” he drew a scathing picture of the French Academy, which never honored itself by electing him to membership. “Tartarin” reappeared in all his buoyancy in “Tartarin sur les Alpes,” and, less successfully as a colonist in “Port-Tarascon.” Some volumes of reminiscences, a considerable number of short stories, some delightful tales for children, and a few plays complete the list of his more important writings. He died at Paris on December 17, 1897.

Daudet was especially distinguished for his style. He wrote with a great impression of ease, yet he obtained an effect of great brilliance and felicity. He belonged to the realistic school, and though he achieved a very living sense of actuality he escaped the cynicism and brutality that marked the work of some of his colleagues.

None of his work is more perfect of its kind than his short stories, and the collection called “Contes du lundi” from which the following examples are taken exhibit his power of restrained pathos at its height. The horrors of the Franco-Prussian War have been more terribly pictured on some larger canvases, but no one has etched with more delicacy and sensitiveness the small private tragedies of that great disaster. “The Siege of Berlin,” “The Last Class,” and “The Bad Zouave” are not only classics of the art of the short story; they contain the essence of French patriotism.

W. A. N.

Criticisms and Interpretations

I. By Henry James

THE CHARM of Daudet’s talent comes from its being charged to an extraordinary degree with his temperament, his feelings, his instincts, his natural qualities. This, of course, is a charm in a style only when nature has been generous. To Alphonse Daudet she has been exceptionally so; she has placed in his hand an instrument of many chords. A delicate nervous organisation, active and indefatigable in spite of its delicacy, and familiar with emotion of almost every kind, equally acquainted with pleasure and with pain; a light, quick, joyous, yet reflective, imagination, a faculty of seeing images, making images, at every turn, of conceiving everything in the visible form, in the plastic spirit; an extraordinary sensibility to all the impressions of life and a faculty of language which is in perfect harmony with his wonderful fineness of perception—these are some of the qualities of which he is the happy possessor, and which make his equipment for the work he has undertaken exceedingly rich.—From “Partial Portraits” (1888).

Criticisms and Interpretations

II. By George Pellissier

DAUDET works in a sort of fever. Even before beginning to write his books, he has related, acted, and almost “lived” them. This habit responds to a necessity of his nature, and this he also constitutes his process of composition. The original sketch is only an improvisation, but with the second version begins what he calls the painful part of his labor. He first abandons himself to his fancy, giving free rein to his troubadour instincts. The subject urges him on and outstrips him; his hand glides rapidly over the paper without writing all the words, or even pausing to punctuate, in the effort to follow the fever of his toiling brain by hastily stenographing ideas and sentiments. Only with that “trembling of the fingers,” with him a sign of inspiration, does he take up his pen. He at once launches into the full current of the action. As his figures are already “on foot in his mind,” he loses no time in introducing them in full activity. The greater part of his novels consists in a series of pictures or episodes which pass in file beneath our eyes. There are no preludes either at the outset or in passing from one chapter to another; he explains the situation by a word, leaving the reader to imagine such events as are not adapted to an entirely actual *mise en scène*. He renders only what moves his heart and sets his nerves in vibration—what is dramatic, picturesque, and animated in human affairs.—From “The Literary Movement in France in the Nineteenth Century” (1893).

1. The Siege of Berlin

WE were going up Avenue des Champs-Élysées with Dr. V——, asking the shell-riddled walls, and the sidewalks torn up by grape-shot, for the story of the siege of Paris, when, just before we reached the Rond-point de l’Étoile, the doctor stopped and, pointing to one of the great corner houses so proudly grouped about the Arc de Triomphe, said to me:

“Do you see those four closed windows up there on that balcony? In the early days of August, that terrible August of last year, so heavily laden with storms and disasters, I was called there to see a case of apoplexy. It was the apartment of Colonel Jouve, a cuirassier of the First Empire, an old enthusiast on the subject of glory and patriotism, who had come to live on the Champs-Élysées, in an apartment with a balcony, at the outbreak of the war. Guess why? In order to witness the triumphant return of our troops. Poor old fellow! The news of Wissembourg reached him just as he was leaving the table. When he read the name of Napoleon at the foot of that bulletin of defeat, he fell like a log.

“I found the former cuirassier stretched out at full length on the carpet, his face covered with blood, and as lifeless as if he had received a blow on the head from a poleaxe. He must have been very tall when he was standing; lying there, he looked enormous. Handsome features, magnificent teeth, a fleece of curly white hair, eighty years with the appearance of sixty. Beside him was his granddaughter, on her knees and bathed in tears. She looked like him. One who saw them side by side might have taken them for two beautiful Greek medallions, struck from the same die, one of which was old and earth-coloured, a little roughened on the edges, the other resplendent and clean-cut, in all the brilliancy and smoothness of a fresh impression.

“The child’s grief touched me. Daughter and granddaughter of soldiers, her father was on MacMahon’s staff, and the image of that tall old man stretched out before her evoked in her mind another image no

less terrible. I comforted her as best I could, but in reality I had little hope. We had to do with a case of complete paralysis on one side, and at eighty years of age few people recover from it. For three days the patient lay in the same state of inanition and stupor. Then the news of Reichshofen reached Paris. You remember in what a strange way it came. Up to the evening, we all believed in a great victory, twenty thousand Prussians killed and the Prince Royal a prisoner. I know not by what miracle, what magnetic current, an echo of that national rejoicing sought out our poor deaf-mute in the depths of his paralysis; but the fact is that on that evening, when I approached his bed, I did not find the same man there. His eye was almost clear, his tongue less heavy. He had the strength to smile at me, and he stammered twice:

“‘Vic-to-ry!’

“And as I gave him details of the grand exploit of MacMahon, I saw that his features relaxed and his face lighted up.

“When I left the room, the girl was waiting for me at the door, pale as death. She was sobbing.

“‘But he is saved!’ I said, taking her hands.

“The unhappy child hardly had the courage to reply. The true report of Reichshofen had been placarded; MacMahon in retreat, the whole army crushed. We gazed at each other in consternation. She was in despair, thinking of her father. I trembled, thinking of the old man. He certainly could not stand this fresh shock. And yet what were we to do? Leave him his joy, and the illusions which had revived him? But in that case we must lie.

“‘Very well, I will lie!’ said the heroic girl, quickly wiping away her tears; and with radiant face she entered her grandfather’s chamber.

“It was a hard task that she had undertaken. The first few days she had no great difficulty. The good man’s brain was feeble, and he allowed himself to be deceived like a child. But with returning health his ideas became clearer. We had to keep him posted concerning the movement of the armies, to draw up military bulletins for him. Really, it was pitiful to see that lovely child leaning night and day over her map of Germany, pinning little flags upon it, and struggling to lay out a glorious campaign: Bazaine besieging Berlin, Froissart in Bavaria, MacMahon on the Baltic. For all this she asked my advice, and I assisted her as well as I could; but it was the grandfather who was especially useful to us in that imaginary invasion. He had conquered Germany so many times under the First Empire! He knew all the strokes beforehand: ‘Now this is where they will go. Now this is what they will do’; and his anticipations were always realised, which did not fail to make him very proud.

“Unlucky it was of no avail for us to take cities and win battles; we never went quickly enough for him. That old man was insatiable! Every day, when I arrived, I learned of some new military exploit.

“‘Doctor, we have taken Mayence,’ the girl would say to me, coming to meet me with a heart-broken smile, and I would hear through the door a joyous voice shouting to me:

“‘They are getting on! They are getting on! In a week we shall be in Berlin!’

“At that moment the Prussians were only a week’s march from Paris. We asked ourselves at first if it would be better to take him into the provinces; but as soon as we were outside the city, the state of the country would have told him everything, and I considered him still too weak, too much benumbed by his great shock, to let him know the truth. So we decided to remain.

“The first day of the investment of Paris, I went up to their rooms, I remember, deeply moved, with that agony at the heart which the closed gates, the fighting under the walls, and our suburbs turned into frontiers, gave us all. I found the good man seated on his bed, proud and jubilant.

“‘Well,’ he said, ‘so the siege has begun!’

“I gazed at him in blank amazement.

“‘What, colonel! you know?’

“His granddaughter turned towards me:

“‘Why, yes, doctor, that’s the great news. The siege of Berlin has begun.’

“As she said this, she plied her needle with such a sedate and placid air! How could he have suspected anything? He could not hear the guns of the forts. He could not see our unfortunate Paris, all in confusion and dreadful to behold. What he saw from his bed was a section of the Arc de Triomphe, and in his room, about him, a collection of bric-a-brac of the First Empire, well adapted to maintain his illusion. Portraits of marshals, engravings of battles, the King of Rome in a baby’s dress, tall consoles adorned with copper trophies, laden with imperial relics, medals, bronzes, a miniature of St. Helena, under a globe, pictures representing the same lady all becurled, in a ball-dress of yellow, with leg-of-mutton sleeves and bright eyes;—and all these things: consoles, King of Rome, marshals, yellow ladies, with the high-necked, short-waisted dresses, the bestarched stiffness, which was the charm of 1806. Gallant colonel! It was that atmosphere of victories and conquests, even more than anything we could say to him, that made him believe so innocently in the siege of Berlin.

“From that day our military operations were much simplified. To take Berlin was only a matter of patience. From time to time, when the old man was too much bored, we would read him a letter from his son—an imaginary letter, of course, for nothing was allowed to enter Paris, and since Sedan, MacMahon’s aide-de-camp had been sent to a German fortress. You can imagine the despair of that poor child, without news from her father, knowing that he was a prisoner, in need of everything, perhaps sick, and she obliged to represent him as writing joyful letters, a little short, perhaps, but such as a soldier on the field might be expected to write, always marching forward through a conquered country. Sometimes her strength gave way; then they were without news for weeks. But the old man became anxious, could not sleep. Thereupon a letter from Germany would speedily arrive, which she would bring to his bedside and read joyously, forcing back her tears. The colonel would listen religiously, smile with a knowing air, approve, criticise, and explain to us the passages that seemed a little confused. But where he was especially grand was in the replies that he sent to his son. ‘Never forget that you are a Frenchman,’ he would say to him. ‘Be generous to those poor people. Don’t make the invasion too hard for them.’ And there were recommendations without end, admirable preachments upon respect for the proprieties, the courtesy which should be shown to the ladies, a complete code of military honour for the use of conquerors. He interspersed also some general considerations upon politics, the conditions of peace to be imposed upon the vanquished. Thereupon I must say that he was not exacting.

“‘A war indemnity, and nothing more. What is the use of taking their provinces? Is it possible to turn Germany into France?’

“He dictated this in a firm voice; and one was conscious of such candour in his words, of such a noble, patriotic faith, that it was impossible not to be moved while listening to him.

“Meanwhile the siege went on—not the siege of Berlin, alas! It was the time of intense cold, of the bombardment, of epidemics and of famine. But, thanks to our care, to our efforts, to the unwearying affection which multiplied itself about him, the old man’s serenity was not disturbed for an instant. To the very end I was able to obtain white bread and fresh meat for him. There was none for anybody but him, to be sure; and you can imagine nothing more touching than those breakfasts of the grandfather, so innocently selfish—the old man seated on his bed, fresh and smiling, with a napkin at his chin, and his granddaughter beside him, a little pale because of privations, guiding his hand, helping him to drink, and to eat all those forbidden good things. Then, enlivened by the repast, in the comfort of his warm room, the winter wind whistling outside and the snow eddying about his windows, the ex-cuirassier would recall his campaigns in the north and would describe to us for the hundredth time that terrible retreat from Russia, when they had nothing to eat but frozen biscuit and horseflesh.

“Do you understand that, my love? We had horseflesh!”

“I rather think that she did understand it. For two months she had had nothing else. From that day, however, as the period of convalescence drew near, our task about the patient became more difficult. That numbness of all his senses, of all his members, which had served us so well hitherto, began to disappear. Two or three times, the terrible volleys from Porte Maillot had made him jump, with his ears pricked up like a hunting-dog; we were obliged to invent a final victory of Bazaine under the walls of Berlin, and guns fired in his honour at the Invalides. Another day when his bed had been moved to the window—it was, I believe, the Thursday of Buzenval—he saw large numbers of National Guards collected on Avenue de la Grande Armée.

“What are all those troops?” asked the good man; and we heard him mutter between his teeth:

“Poorly set up! Poorly set up!”

“That was all; but we understood that we must take great precautions thenceforth. Unluckily we did not take enough.

“One evening when I arrived, the girl came to me in great trouble.

“They are to march into the city to-morrow,” she said.

“Was the grandfather’s door open? In truth, on thinking it over afterwards, I remembered that his face wore an extraordinary expression that night. It is probable that he had overheard us. But we were talking of the Prussians; and the good man was thinking of the French, of that triumphal entry which he had been awaiting so long—MacMahon marching down the avenue amid flowers and flourishes of trumpets, his son beside him, and he, the old colonel, on his balcony, in full uniform as at Lutzen, saluting the torn flags and the eagles blackened by powder.

“Poor Father Jouve! He had imagined doubtless that we intended to prevent him from witnessing that parade of our troops, in order to avoid too great excitement. So he was very careful not to mention it to any one; but the next day, at the very hour when the Prussian battalions entered hesitatingly upon the long road which leads from Porte Maillot to the Tuileries, the window up there opened softly, and the colonel appeared on the balcony, with his helmet, his long sword, all the glorious old array of one of Milhaud’s cuirassiers. I wonder still what effort of the will, what sudden outburst of life had placed him thus upon his feet and in his harness. This much is sure, that he was there, standing behind the rail, amazed to find the broad avenues so silent, the blinds of the houses closed, Paris as gloomy as a huge

lazaretto, flags everywhere, but such strange flags, white with little crosses, and no one to go to meet our soldiers.

“For a moment he might have thought that he was mistaken.

“But no! Yonder, behind the Arc de Triomphe, there was a confused rumbling, a black line approaching in the rising sunlight. Then, little by little, the points of the helmets gleamed, the little drums of Jena began to beat, and beneath the Arc de Triomphe, while the heavy tramp of the regiments and the clashing of the sabres beat time, Schubert’s *Triumphal March* burst forth!

“Thereupon in the deathlike silence of the square, a cry rang out, a terrible cry: ‘To arms! To arms! The Prussians!’ and the four uhlans of the vanguard saw up yonder, on the balcony, a tall old man wave his arms, stagger, and fall. That time, Colonel Jouve was really dead.”

2. The Last Class—The Story of a Little Alsatian

I WAS very late for school that morning, and I was terribly afraid of being scolded, especially as Monsieur Hamel had told us that he should examine us on participles, and I did not know the first thing about them. For a moment I thought of staying away from school and wandering about the fields. It was such a warm, lovely day. I could hear the blackbirds whistling on the edge of the wood, and in the Rippert field, behind the sawmill, the Prussians going through their drill. All that was much more tempting to me than the rules concerning participles; but I had the strength to resist, and I ran as fast as I could to school.

As I passed the mayor’s office, I saw that there were people gathered about the little board on which notices were posted. For two years all our bad news had come from that board—battles lost, conscriptions, orders from headquarters; and I thought without stopping:

“What can it be now?”

Then, as I ran across the square, Wachter the blacksmith, who stood there with his apprentice, reading the placard, called out to me:

“Don’t hurry so, my boy; you’ll get to your school soon enough!”

I thought that he was making fun of me, and I ran into Monsieur Hamel’s little yard all out of breath.

Usually, at the beginning of school, there was a great uproar which could be heard in the street, desks opening and closing, lessons repeated aloud in unison, with our ears stuffed in order to learn quicker, and the teacher’s stout ruler beating on the desk:

“A little more quiet!”

I counted on all this noise to reach my bench unnoticed; but as it happened, that day everything was quiet, like a Sunday morning. Through the open window I saw my comrades already in their places, and Monsieur Hamel walking back and forth with the terrible iron ruler under his arm. I had no open the door and enter, in the midst of that perfect silence. You can imagine whether I blushed and whether I was afraid!

But no! Monsieur Hamel looked at me with no sign of anger and said very gently:

“Go at once to your seat, my little Frantz; we were going to begin without you.”

I stepped over the bench and sat down at once at my desk. Not until then, when I had partly recovered from my fright, did I notice that our teacher had on his handsome blue coat, his plaited ruff, and the black silk embroidered breeches, which he wore only on days of inspection or of distribution of prizes. Moreover, there was something extraordinary, something solemn about the whole class. But what surprised me most was to see at the back of the room, on the benches which were usually empty, some people from the village sitting, as silent as we were: old Hauser with his three-cornered hat, the ex-mayor, the ex-postman, and others besides. They all seemed depressed; and Hauser had brought an old spelling-book with gnawed edges, which he held wide-open on his knee, with his great spectacles askew.

While I was wondering at all this, Monsieur Hamel had mounted his platform, and in the same gentle and serious voice with which he had welcomed me, he said to us:

“My children, this is the last time that I shall teach you. Orders have come from Berlin to teach nothing but German in the schools of Alsace and Lorraine. The new teacher arrives to-morrow. This is the last class in French, so I beg you to be very attentive.”

Those few words overwhelmed me. Ah! the villains! that was what they had posted at the mayor’s office.

My last class in French!

And I barely knew how to write! So I should never learn! I must stop short where I was! How angry I was with myself because of the time I had wasted, the lessons I had missed, running about after nests, or sliding on the Saar! My books, which only a moment before I thought so tiresome, so heavy to carry—my grammar, my sacred history—seemed to me now like old friends, from whom I should be terribly grieved to part. And it was the same about Monsieur Hamel. The thought that he was going away, that I should never see him again, made me forget the punishments, the blows with the ruler.

Poor man! It was in honour of that last lesson that he had put on his fine Sunday clothes; and I understood now why those old fellows from the village were sitting at the end of the room. It seemed to mean that they regretted not having come oftener to the school. It was also a way of thanking our teacher for his forty years of faithful service, and of paying their respects to the fatherland which was vanishing.

I was at that point in my reflections, when I heard my name called. It was my turn to recite. What would I not have given to be able to say from beginning to end that famous rule about participles, in a loud, distinct voice, without a slip! But I got mixed up at the first words, and I stood there swaying against my bench, with a full heart, afraid to raise my head. I heard Monsieur Hamel speaking to me:

“I will not scold you, my little Frantz; you must be punished enough; that is the way it goes; every day we say to ourselves: ‘Pshaw! I have time enough. I will learn to-morrow.’ And then you see what happens. Ah! it has been the great misfortune of our Alsace always to postpone its lessons until to-morrow. Now those people are entitled to say to us: ‘What! you claim to be French, and you can neither speak nor write your language!’ In all this, my poor Frantz, you are not the guiltiest one. We all have our fair share of reproaches to address to ourselves.

“Your parents have not been careful enough to see that you were educated. They preferred to send you

to work in the fields or in the factories, in order to have a few more sous. And have I nothing to reproach myself for? Have I not often made you water my garden instead of studying? And when I wanted to go fishing for trout, have I ever hesitated to dismiss you?"

Then, passing from one thing to another, Monsieur Hamel began to talk to us about the French language, saying that it was the most beautiful language in the world, the most clear, the most substantial; that we must always retain it among ourselves, and never forget it, because when a people falls into servitude, "so long as it clings to its language, it is as if it held the key to its prison." 1 Then he took the grammar and read us our lesson. I was amazed to see how readily I understood. Everything that he said seemed so easy to me, so easy. I believed, too, that I had never listened so closely, and that he, for his part, had never been so patient with his explanations. One would have said that, before going away, the poor man desired to give us all his knowledge, to force it all into our heads at a single blow.

When the lesson was at an end, we passed to writing. For that day Monsieur Hamel had prepared some entirely new examples, on which was written in a fine, round hand: "France, Alsace, France, Alsace." They were like little flags, waving all about the class, hanging from the rods of our desks. You should have seen how hard we all worked and how silent it was! Nothing could be heard save the grinding of the pens over the paper. At one time some cock-chafers flew in; but no one paid any attention to them, not even the little fellows who were struggling with their straight lines, with a will and conscientious application, as if even the lines were French. On the roof of the schoolhouse, pigeons cooed in low tones, and I said to myself as I listened to them:

"I wonder if they are going to compel them to sing in German too!"

From time to time, when I raised my eyes from my paper. I saw Monsieur Hamel sitting motionless in his chair and staring at the objects about him as if he wished to carry away in his glance the whole of his little schoolhouse. Think of it! For forty years he had been there in the same place, with his yard in front of him and his class just as it was! But the benches and desks were polished and rubbed by use; the walnuts in the yard had grown, and the hop-vine which he himself had planted now festooned the windows even to the roof. What a heart-rending thing it must have been for that poor man to leave all those things, and to hear his sister walking back and forth in the room overhead, packing their trunks! For they were to go away the next day—to leave the province forever.

However, he had the courage to keep the class to the end. After the writing, we had the lesson in history; then the little ones sang all together the *ba, be, bi, bo, bu*. Yonder, at the back of the room, old Hauser had put on his spectacles, and, holding his spelling-book in both hands, he spelled out the letters with them. I could see that he too was applying himself. His voice shook with emotion, and it was so funny to hear him, that we all longed to laugh and to cry. Ah! I shall remember that last class.

Suddenly the church clock struck twelve, then the Angelus rang. At the same moment, the bugles of the Prussians returning from drill blared under our windows. Monsieur Hamel rose, pale as death, from his chair. Never had he seemed to me so tall.

"My friends," he said, "my friends, I—I—"

But something suffocated him. He could not finish the sentence.

Thereupon he turned to the blackboard, took a piece of chalk, and, bearing on with all his might, he wrote in the largest letters he could:

“VIVE LA FRANCE!”

Then he stood there, with his head resting against the wall, and without speaking, he motioned to us with his hand:

“That is all; go.”

3. The Child Spy

HIS name was Stenne, little Stenne.

He was a child of Paris, sickly and pale, who might have been ten years old, perhaps fifteen; with those urchins one can never tell. His mother was dead; his father, formerly in the navy, was keeper of a square in the Temple quarter. Babies, nurse-maids, old ladies in reclining-chairs, poor mothers, all of toddling Paris that seeks shelter from vehicles in those flower-gardens bordered by paths, knew Father Stenne and adored him. They knew that beneath that rough mustache, the terror of dogs and of loiterers, lay concealed a kind, melting, almost maternal smile, and that, in order to see that smile one had only to ask the good man:

“How’s your little boy?”

Father Stenne was so fond of his boy! He was so happy in the afternoon, after school, when the little fellow came for him and they made together the circuit of the paths, stopping at each bench to salute the occupants and to answer their kind words.

Unfortunately with the siege everything changed. Father Stenne’s square was closed, petroleum was stored there, and the poor man, forced to keep watch all the time, passed his life among the deserted and neglected shrubs, alone, unable to smoke, and without the company of his boy except very late at night, at home. So that you should have seen his mustache when he mentioned the Prussians. As for little Stenne, he did not complain very much of that new life.

A siege! It is such an amusing thing for urchins. No school! No lessons! Vacation all the time and the street like a fair.

The child stayed out of doors, wandering about until night. He followed the battalions of the quarter when they went to the fortifications, choosing by preference those which had a good band; and upon that subject little Stenne was well posted. He could tell you that the band of the 96th did not amount to much, but that in the 55th they had a fine one. At other times he watched the troops go through the drill; then there were the lines at the shopdoors.

With his basket on his arm, he stood in the long lines that formed in the dark winter mornings, without gas, at the doors of the butchers’ and bakers’ shops. There, with their feet in the water, people became acquainted, talked politics, and every one asked his advice, as M. Stenne’s son. But the games of *bouchon* were the most amusing thing of all, and that famous game of *galoche*, which the Breton militia had brought into fashion during the siege. When little Stenne was not at the fortifications, or at the baker’s, you were sure to find him at the game on Place du Château d’Eau. He did not play, you understand; it required too much money. He contented himself with watching the players, with such eyes!

One especially, a tall youth in a blue blouse, who bet nothing less than five-franc pieces, aroused his admiration. When he ran you could hear the money jingling in his pockets.

One day, as he picked up a coin which had rolled to little Stenne's feet, the tall youth said to him in an undertone:

“That makes you squint, eh? Well, I will tell you where they are to be found, if you want.”

When the game was ended he led him to a corner of the square and proposed to him to go with him to sell newspapers to the Prussians; he received thirty francs per trip. At first Stenne refused, highly indignant; and he actually stayed away from the game for three days. Three terrible days. He did not eat, he did not sleep. At night, he saw piles of *galoches* at the foot of his bed, and five-franc pieces lying flat, all glistening. The temptation was too great. On the fourth day he returned to the Château d'Eau, saw the tall youth again, and allowed himself to be persuaded.

They set out one snowy morning, a canvas bag over their shoulders and newspapers hidden under their blouses. When they reached the Flanders gate it was barely light. The tall youth took Stenne by the hand, and, approaching the sentry—an honest volunteer with a red nose and a good-natured expression—he said to him in the whining voice of a pauper:

“Let us pass, my kind monsieur. Our mother is sick, papa is dead, I am going out with my little brother to pick up potatoes in the fields.”

And he wept. Stenne, covered with shame, hung his head. The sentry looked at them a moment, and cast a glance at the deserted road.

“Hurry up,” he said, stepping aside; and there they were upon the Aubervilliers Road. How the tall fellow laughed!

Confusedly, as in a dream, little Stenne saw factories transformed into barracks, abandoned barricades covered with wet rags, long chimneys cutting the mist and rising into the sky, smokeless and broken. At intervals, a sentry, beplumed officers looking into the distance with field-glasses, and small tents drenched with melted snow in front of dying fires. The tall fellow knew the roads and cut across the fields to avoid the outposts. However, they fell in with a patrol of sharpshooters, whom they could not avoid. The sharpshooters were in their little cabins, perched on the edge of a ditch filled with water, along the Soissons railroad. That time the tall fellow repeated his story in vain; they would not allow them to pass. Then, while he was complaining, an old sergeant, all wrinkled and grizzled, who resembled Father Stenne, came out of the guardhouse to the road.

“Come, little brats, I wouldn't cry!” he said to the children; “we'll let you go to get your potatoes, but come in and warm yourselves a little first. This little fellow looks as if he was frozen!”

Alas! It was not with cold that little Stenne was trembling—it was with fear, with shame. In the guard-house they found several soldiers crouching about a paltry fire, a genuine widow's fire, by the heat of which they were thawing out biscuit on the points of their bayonets. They moved closer together to make room for the children. They gave them a little coffee. While they were drinking, an officer came to the door, called to the sergeant, spoke to him in an undertone and hurried away.

“MY boys,” said the sergeant, returning with a radiant face, “there will be something up to-night. They have found out the Prussians' countersign. I believe that this time we shall capture that infernal Bourget

again.”

There was an explosion of cheers and laughter. They danced and sang and brandished their sword-bayonets; and the children, taking advantage of the tumult, disappeared.

When they had passed the railway there was nothing before them but a level plain, and in the distance a long, blank wall, riddled with loopholes. It was towards that wall that they bent their steps, stooping constantly to make it appear that they were picking up potatoes.

“Let’s go back, let’s not go on,” said little Stenne again and again.

The other shrugged his shoulders and kept on. Suddenly they heard the click of a gun being cocked.

“Lie down!” said the tall fellow, throwing himself on the ground.

When they were down, he whistled. Another whistled. Another whistle answered over the snow. They crawled on. In front of the wall, level with the ground, appeared a pair of yellow mustaches beneath a soiled cap. The tall youth jumped into the trench, beside the Prussian.

“This is my brother,” he said, pointing to his companion.

Little Stenne was so little, that at the sight of him the Prussian began to laugh, and he was obliged to take him in his arms to lift him up to the breach.

On the other side of the wall were great piles of earth, felled trees, black holes in the snow, and in each hole the same dirty cap and the same yellow mustaches, laughing when they saw the children pass.

In the corner was a gardener’s house casemated with trunks of trees. The lower room was full of soldiers playing cards, and cooking soup over a big, blazing fire. The cabbages and pork smelled good; what a contrast to the bivouac of the sharp-shooters! Above were the officers. They could hear them playing the piano and opening champagne. When the Parisian entered, a joyous cheer greeted them. They produced their newspapers; then they were given drink and were induced to talk. All the officers had a haughty and disdainful manner; but the tall youth amused them with his faubourgian wit, his street Arab’s vocabulary. They laughed, repeated his phrases after him, and wallowed with delight in the Parisian mud which he brought them.

Little Stenne would have liked to talk too, to prove that he was not stupid, but something embarrassed him. Opposite him, apart from the rest, was an older and graver Prussian, who was reading, or rather seemed to be reading, for his eyes did not leave little Stenne. Affection and reproach were in his glance as if he had at home a child of the same age as Stenne, and as if he were saying to himself:

“I would rather die than see my son engaged in such business.”

From that moment Stenne felt as if it were a hand resting on his heart, which prevented it from beating.

To escape that torture, he began to drink. Soon everything about him whirled around. He heard vaguely, amid loud laughter, his comrade making fun of the National Guards, of their manner of drilling; he imitated a call to arms in the Marais, a night alarm on the ramparts. Then the tall fellow lowered his voice, the officers drew nearer to him, and their faces became serious. The villain was warning them of the attack of the sharp-shooters.

At that little Stenne sprang to his feet in a rage, thoroughly sober:

“Not that! I won’t have it!”

But the other simply laughed and kept on. Before he had finished, all the officers were standing. One of them pointed to the door and said to the children:

“Clear out!”

And they began to talk among themselves very rapidly, in German.

The tall youth went out as proud as a prince, jingling his money. Stenne followed him, hanging his head; and when he passed the Prussian whose glance had embarrassed him so, he heard a sad voice say:

“Not a nice thing to do, that. Not a nice thing.”

Tears came to his eyes.

Once in the field, the children began to run and returned quickly to the city. Their bag was full of potatoes which the Prussians had given them. With them they passed unhindered to the trench of the sharp-shooters. There they were preparing for the night attack. Troops came up silently and massed behind the walls. The old sergeant was there, busily engaged in posting his men, with such a happy expression. When the children passed, he recognised them and bestowed a pleasant smile upon them.

Oh! how that smile hurt little Stenne! For a moment he was tempted to call out:

“Don’t go there; we have betrayed you.”

But the other had told him: “If you speak we shall be shot”; and fear restrained him.

At La Courneuve, they entered an abandoned house to divide the money. Truth compels me to state that the division was made honestly, and that little Stenne’s crime did not seem so terrible to him when he heard the coins jingling under his blouse, and thought of the games of *galoche* which he had in prospect.

But when he was alone, the wretched child! When the tall fellow had left him at the gate, then his pockets began to be very heavy, and the hand that grasped his heart grasped it tighter than ever. Paris did not seem the same to him. The people who passed gazed sternly at him as if they knew whence he came. He heard the word “spy” in the rumbling of the wheels, in the beating of the drums along the canal. At last he reached home, and, overjoyed to find that his father was not there, he went quickly up to their room, to hide under his pillow that money that weighed so heavily upon him.

Never had Father Stenne been so joyous and so good-humoured as when he returned that night. News had been received from the provinces: affairs were looking better. As he ate, the old soldier looked at his musket hanging on the wall, and said to the child with his hearty laugh:

“I say, my boy, how you would go at the Prussians if you were big!”

Above eight o’clock, they heard cannon.

“That is Aubervilliers. They are fighting at Bourget,” said the good man, who knew all the forts. Little Stenne turned pale, and, on the plea that he was very tired, he went to bed; but he did not sleep. The cannon still roared. He imagined the sharp-shooters arriving in the dark to surprise the Prussians, and

themselves falling into an ambush. He remembered the sergeant who had smiled at him and he saw him stretched out on the snow, and many others with him. The price of all that blood was concealed there under his pillow, and it was he, the son of Monsieur Stenne, of a soldier—tears choked him. In the adjoining room he heard his father walk to the window and open it. Below on the square, the recall was sounding; and a battalion was forming to leave the city. Evidently it was a real battle. The unhappy child could not restrain a sob.

“What’s the matter with you?” asked Father Stenne as he entered the room.

The child could not stand it any longer; he leaped out of bed and threw himself at his father’s feet. At the movement that he made the silver pieces rolled on the floor.

“What is all this? Have you been stealing?” demanded the old man, trembling.

Thereupon, without pausing for breath, little Stenne told him that he had been to the Prussian quarters and of what he had done there.

As he spoke, his heart felt freer; it relieved him to accuse himself. Father Stenne listened, with a terrible face. When it was at an end, he hid face in his hands and wept.

“Father, father—” the child began.

The old man pushed him away without replying, and picked up the money.

“Is this all?” he asked.

Little Stenne motioned that it was all. The old man took down his musket and cartridge box, and said as he put the money in his pocket:

“All right; I am going to return it to them.”

And without another word, without even turning his head, he went down and joined the troops who were marching away in the darkness. He was never seen again.

4. The Game of Billiards

AS they have been fighting two days, and have passed the night with their knapsacks on, beneath a flood of rain, the soldiers are completely exhausted. And yet for three mortal hours they have been left waiting, with grounded arms, in the puddles of the highroads and the mud of the saturated fields.

Benumbed by fatigue, by sleepless nights, and with their uniforms drenched with rain, they crowd together to warm and comfort one another. There are some who sleep standing, leaning against a neighbour’s knapsack, and weariness and privations can be read distinctly upon those relaxed faces, overcome with sleep. Rain, mud, no fire, nothing to eat, a low, black sky, and the enemy in the air about. It is funereal.

What are they doing there? What is going on? The guns, with their muzzles pointed towards the wood, have the appearance of watching something. The mitrailleurs in ambush stare fixedly at the horizon. Everything seems ready for an attack. Why do they not attack? What are they waiting for?

They are awaiting orders, and headquarters sends none. And yet the headquarters are not far away. They

are at yonder stately Louis-Treize château, whose red bricks, scoured by the rain, glisten among the trees half-way up the hill. Truly a princely dwelling, quite worthy to bear the banner of a marshal of France. Behind a broad moat and a stone wall which separate them from the road, smooth green lawns, lined with vases of flowers, extend to the porch. On the other side, the private side of the house, the hornbeam hedges show luminous gaps; the pond in which swans are swimming lies like a mirror, and beneath the pagodalike roof of an enormous aviary, peacocks and golden pheasants flash their wings and display their plumage, uttering shrill cries amid the foliage. Although the owners have gone away, one does not feel the abandonment, the desolation of war. The oriflamme of the leader of the army has safeguarded even the tiniest flowers in the lawns, and it is an impressive thing to find so near the battle-field that opulent tranquillity that is born of perfect order, of the accurate alignment of the shrubbery, of the silent depths of the avenues.

The rain, which fills the roads yonder with such disgusting mud, and digs such deep ruts, here is nothing more than an elegant, aristocratic shower, reviving the red of the bricks and the green of the lawns, polishing the leaves of the orange-trees and the white feathers of the swans. Everything glistens, everything is peaceful. Really, but for the flag floating on the roof, but for the two soldiers on sentry-go before the gate, one would never suspect that it is the headquarters of an army. The horses are resting in the stables. Here and there one sees a groom, or an orderly in undress uniform, loitering about the kitchen, or a gardener in red trousers placidly drawing his rake over the gravel in the great courtyards.

The dining-room, the windows of which look upon the porch, discloses a half-cleared table; uncorked bottles, soiled and empty glasses on the rumpled cloth; the end of a banquet, after the guests have gone. In the adjoining room one may hear loud voices, laughter, the clicking of balls and the clinking of glasses. The marshal is playing his game of billiards, and that is why the army is waiting for orders. When the marshal had begun his game, the heavens might fall, but nothing in the world could prevent him from finishing it.

Billiards! that is the weakness of that great warrior. He stands there, as grave as in battle, in full uniform, his breast covered with medals, with kindled eyes, flushed cheeks, excited by feasting, grog, and the game. His aides-de-camp surround him, zealous and respectful, uttering admiring exclamations at each of his strokes. When the marshal makes a point, they all hasten to mark it; when the marshal is thirsty, they all rush to prepare his grog. There is a constant rustling of epaulettes and plumes, a jingling of medals; and to see all those sweet smiles, those artful, courtierlike reverences, all those new uniforms and embroidery in that lofty apartment, with its oaken wainscoting, looking upon parks and courts of honour, recalls the autumn days at Compiègne, and affords the eyes a little rest from the stained cloaks that shiver yonder along the roads, forming such sombre groups in the rain.

The marshal's opponent is a young captain of the staff, belted and curled and light-gloved, who is in the first rank of billiard-players and capable of beating all the marshals on earth; but he has the tact to keep a respectful distance behind his chief, and devotes his energies to the task of not winning, and at the same time not losing too easily. He is what is called an officer with a future.

Attention, young man, let us be on our guard! The marshal has fifteen, and you ten. The point is to keep the game in that condition to the end; then you will have done more for your promotion than if you were outside with the others, beneath those torrents of water which drown the horizon, soiling your natty uniform, tarnishing the gold of your aiguillettes, awaiting orders which do not come.

It is really an interesting game. The balls roll and clash and mingle their colours. The cushions send

them merrily back; the cloth waxes hot. Suddenly the flash of a cannon-shot passes across the sky. A dull sound rattles the windows. Everybody starts, and they look at each other anxiously. The marshal alone has neither seen nor heard anything; leaning over the table, he is busily engaged in planning a magnificent draw-shot; draw-shots are his strong point.

But there comes another flash, then another. The cannon-shots succeed each other in hot haste. The aides-de-camp run to the windows. Can it be that the Prussians are attacking.

“Very well, let them attack!” says the marshal, chalking his cue. “It’s your turn, captain.”

The staff quivers with admiration. Turenne asleep upon a gun-carriage was nothing compared to this marshal, who plays billiards so tranquilly at the moment of going into action. Meanwhile the uproar redoubles. With the roar of the cannon is mingled the tearing sound of the mitrailleuses, the rattle of musketry. A red steam, black at the edges, rises around the lawns. The whole park is on fire. The terrified peacocks and pheasants shriek in the aviary; the Arabian horses, smelling the powder, rear in the stables. The headquarters begins to be excited. Despatch after despatch. Couriers arrive at full speed. They ask for the marshal.

The marshal cannot be seen. Did I not tell you that nothing could prevent him from finishing his game?

“It is your turn, captain.”

But the captain is distraught. That is what it is to be young. Behold he loses his head, forgets his tactics, and makes two runs in succession, which almost give him the game. Thereupon the marshal becomes furious. Surprise and indignation animate his manly face. Just at this moment a horse ridden at a hard gallop rushes into the courtyard. An aide-de-camp covered with mud forces his way past the sentries and ascends the steps at one bound. “Marshal, marshal!” You should see how he is greeted. Puffing with anger and red as a rooster, the marshal appears at the window, his billiard-cue in his hand:

“What’s the matter? What’s all this? Isn’t there any sentry there?”

“But, marshal——”

“All right, in a moment; wait for my orders, in God’s name!”

And the window is violently closed.

Wait for his orders! That is just what they are doing, the poor fellows. The wind drives the rain and the grapeshot full in their faces. Whole battalions are wiped out, while others stand useless, with their arms in readiness, utterly unable to understand their inaction. Nothing to do. They are awaiting orders. However, as one needs no orders to die, the men fall by hundreds behind the shrubs, in the moats, in front of the great silent château. Even after they have fallen, the grape tears them still, and from the open wounds the generous blood of France flows noiselessly. Above, in the billiard-room, it is getting terribly warm too; the marshal has recovered his lead, but the little captain is defending himself like a lion.

Seventeen! eighteen! nineteen!

They hardly have time to mark the points. The roar of the battle draws nearer. The marshal has but one more to go. Already shells are falling in the park. Suddenly one bursts over the pond. The mirror is shattered; a swan in deadly alarm swims wildly about amid an eddy of bloody feathers. That is the last

stroke.

Then, a profound silence. Only the rain falling on the hedges, a confused rumbling at the foot of the hill, and, along the muddy roads, a sound like the trampling of a hurrying flock. The army is in full retreat. The marshal has won his game.

5. The Bad Zouave

THAT evening the big blacksmith, Lory of Sainte-Marie-aux-Mines, was not happy.

When the smithy fire had gone down and the sun had set, it was his custom to sit on a bench before his door, tasting that grateful weariness which is the reward of heavy labor and of a hot day's work. Before he sent home his apprentices, he would drink several deep glasses of cool beer with them, while he watched the workers coming out of the factories.

But that evening the good blacksmith remained at his forge until it was time for his supper, and even then he went as if he regretted to leave. As his old wife looked at him, she thought.

“What can have happened to him? Can he have received bad news from the regiment and be hiding it from me? Perhaps the older of the boys is sick——”

But she dared not question him, and busied herself quieting three little tow-headed rascals, brown as ears of parched corn, who were laughing around the table as they crunched their good salad of black radishes and cream.

At last the blacksmith pushed back his plate in a rage and cried,

“Ah, what brutes, what curs!”

“Come, Lory, who are you talking about?” said his wife. He shouted,

“I am talking of five or six scamps who were seen this morning parading the town in their French uniforms, arm in arm with the Bavarians—more of those fellows who have—how do they say it?—‘chosen Prussian citizenship.’ And to think that every day we seeing such false Alsatians come back! What can they have given the scoundrels to drink anyway?”

The mother tried to defend them.

“My poor husband, what do you expect? Those boys are not entirely to blame. They are sent to Algeria, so far away in Africa! They get home-sick out there, and their temptation is very strong to come back and not be soldiers any longer.”

Lory struck the table a heavy blow with his fist.

“Be still, mother! You women-folk understand nothing at all. You live so much with children and so little for anything else that you become exactly the size of your cubs. I tell you, those fellows are ragamuffins, renegades, the worst sort of scoundrels! If bad luck ever made our own Christian capable of such infamous conduct, as surely as my name is George Lory, seven years chasseur in the army of France, I would run him through the body with my saber!”

Terrible to look upon, he half rose from his chair and pointed to his long chasseur's saber, which hung

under a picture of his son in the uniform of a zouave, taken out there in Africa.

But merely to look at that honest Alsatian face,—burned almost black by the sun, the strong light making the colours stand out vividly against the blank whiteness around—that was enough to quiet him suddenly. He began to laugh.

“I am a fine fellow to be losing my head this way! As if our Christian could dream of turning Prussian—Christian, who bowled over such a lot of them in the war!”

Brought back to good humour by this idea, the good smith managed to make a cheerful meal, and set out right after it to empty a couple of glasses at the *Ville de Strasbourg*.

The old woman was now left alone. She had put the small blond scamps to bed; they could be heard twittering in the next room like a nestful of birds getting ready for sleep. She picked up her work, and set to darning before the door on the garden side of the house. Once in a while she sighed, and she thought,

“Of course—there can be no doubt of it—they are scoundrels and renegades—but, what of it? Their mothers are glad to see them again.”

And she thought of the time when her own boy had not yet gone to join the army and stood there just at that hour of the day, getting ready to work in the garden. She looked at the well where he refilled his watering cans: her boy, in his blouse, with his long hair, that beautiful hair which had been cut short when he entered the Zouaves.

Suddenly she trembled. The little gate at the back—the gate which led to the fields,—had been opened. The dogs had not barked, though the man who had just entered slunk along the walk like a thief, and slipped in among the beehives.

“Good-day, mother!”

His uniform all awry, there stood before her Christian, her son, anxious, shame-faced, and thick-tongued. The wretched boy had come back with the others and for the last hour had been prowling about the house, waiting for his father to go out. She wanted to scold him, but she had not the courage. How long it was since she had seen him, had hugged him! And then he went on to give her such good reasons for his return!—how he had grown weary for his native countryside, for the smithy:—weary of living always so far away from them all, and of the discipline—much harsher of late—as well as of his comrades, who called him “Prussian” because of his Alsatian accent. She believed every word he said. She had only to look at him to believe him. Deep in their talk, they went into the lower room. The little ones woke up, and ran in their nightshirts and bare feet to embrace the big brother. He was urged to eat, but he was not hungry. He was only thirsty, always thirsty; and he gulped great draughts of water on top of all the beer and white wine for which he had paid that morning at the inn.

But some one was coming into the yard. It was the black-smith returning.

“Christian, here comes your father. Quick, hide until I have time to talk with him and explain.”

She pushed the boy behind the great porcelain stove and again set herself to sewing with trembling hands. But as ill fortune would have it, the Zouave’s cap lay upon the table, and it was the first thing Lory noticed as he entered. The mother’s pallor, and her agitation—he understood it all.

“Christian is here!” he cried, in a terrible voice. Taking down his saber with a mad gesture, he rushed towards the stove where crouched the Zouave, pale, sobered, and steadying himself against the wall to keep from falling.

The mother threw herself between them.

“Lory, Lory! Don’t kill him! He came back because I wrote that you needed him at the forge!”

She riveted her hold upon his arm, and dragged him back, sobbing. The children, in the darkness of their room, began to cry when they heard those voices full of anger and tears, and so thick that they did not know them.

The smith stood still and looked at his wife.

“Oh!” he said. “So it was you who made him come back! Very well. It is time he went to bed. I shall decide to-morrow what I must do.”

Christian woke next morning from a sleep filled with nightmares and broken by causeless terrors, to find himself in the room he had used as a child. Already warm and well up in the sky, the sun sent its rays across the blossoming hops and through the small leaded panes of the window. Hammers were ringing on the anvil below. His mother sat by his pillow: she had been so afraid of her husband’s anger that she had not stirred from there all night. Nor had the father gone to bed. Till the first dawn, he had walked through the house weeping, sighing, opening and closing closets. He now entered his son’s room. He was very grave and dressed for a journey. He wore his high gaiters and his big hat, and carried his heavy mountain stick with its iron ferule. He went straight to the bed.

“Come, get up!”

Dazed, the boy made as if to get his Zouave equipment.

“No, not that!” said the father, sternly.

The mother, all apprehension, said,

“But, my dear, he has no other things.”

“Give him mine. I shall not need them again.”

While the boy dressed, Lory carefully packed the uniform, with its little vest and its huge red trousers. As soon as he had made the package, he slung about his neck the tin box which contained the schedule of coaches.

“Now let us go down,” he said; and all three without a word descended to the smithy.

The blast roared. Everyone was at work. When Christian saw once more that great open shed of which he had so often thought off there in Algeria, he recalled his childhood and the long hours he had played out there, between the heat of the road and the sparks from the forge that glittered amid the black dust. He felt a sudden flood of tenderness, a great longing to be pardoned by his father; but whenever he raised his eyes, he met an inexorable look.

At last the blacksmith made up his mind to speak.

“Boy,” he said, “there stands the anvil with the tools. They are all yours. And so is all this.” He indicated the little garden which lay beyond, filled with sunshine and with bees, and framed by the sooty square of the door.

“The hives, the vine, the house itself,—they are all yours. You sacrificed your honour for these things. The least you can do is to take care of them. Now you are master here. As for myself, I shall go away. You owe five years to France: I am going to pay them for you.”

“Lory, Lory!” cried the poor old wife, “where are you going?”

“Father!” begged the son.

But the blacksmith was already on his way. He walked with great strides and did not turn back.

At Sidi-bel-Abbés, the dépôt of the Third Zouaves, there enlisted some days later a volunteer who gave his age as fifty-five years.

Footnotes

Note 1. “S’il tient sa langue, il tient la clé qui de ses chaines le delivre.”—Mistral. [[back](#)]

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